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A GRAMMAR OF THE LATIN LANGUAGE

FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

BY

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REVISED BY

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PREFACE.

WHEN I acceded to the request of the publishers and the owners of the copyright of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, that I should revise that work, I had no idea that the new book would be so unlike the original. In the thirty years, however, since the Grammar was last revised, opinions have changed a good deal as to what the contents of such a book should be, and how they should be presented, and our knowledge of the Latin language has made very great progress. I have consequently found myself driven further and further from the earlier form of the Grammar; but the apprehension I naturally felt at this result has been relieved somewhat by the fact that the learned authors of the original work confess to a similar experience. In justification of my procedure I cannot do better than quote the following words from their preface:—

“The Grammar here presented to the public originated in a design, formed several years since, of preparing a new edition of Adam's Latin Grammar, with such additions and corrections as the existing state of classical learning plainly demanded. We had not proceeded far in the execution of this purpose, before we were impressed with the conviction, which our subsequent researches continually confirmed, that the defects in that manual were so numerous and of so fundamental a character that they could not be removed without a radical change in the plan of the work. . . . Instead, therefore, of prosecuting our original purpose, we at length determined to mould our materials into a form corresponding with the advanced state of Latin and Greek philology.”

Most of the old paradigms have been retained, and others have sometimes been added. In the case of the regular verb I have printed the four conjugations side by side, because when thus placed they are more easily seen to be really varieties of one conjugation, and their forms are more easily implanted in the memory than when learned in four isolated groups.

Many of the old examples also remain, and many new ones have been introduced. Those quoted from the Latin authors I have assigned, when possible, to their exact sources ; but in various instances, especially among the examples retained from the earlier Grammar, I have been unable, with the time at my command, to discover the precise reference. It has seemed to me best not to sacrifice instructive examples on this account, but to leave them, as in the older editions, simply accredited to their respective authors.

The general sequence of topics has not been greatly altered. The most important changes are the following : The sections treating of Word-Formation have been gathered into one place — between Inflection and Syntax — instead of being distributed among the different parts of speech in connection with their inflection. This treatment of Word-Formation I have tried to make more effective by giving the pupil, where it could be done, some insight into the *processes* of the growth of words rather than merely classifying derivatives according to their apparent endings. The treatment of adverbs (except their comparison), and of prepositions and other particles, as not properly belonging to Inflection, has been transferred partly to Word-Formation, partly to Syntax. The rules of quantity have been brought into the early part of the book instead of being relegated to Versification, because they seem to me necessary to a reasonable accuracy in pronunciation, which, if neglected at the start, tends to a distressing slovenliness very hard to correct later. While the rules of agreement for adjectives and pronouns remain in their old place at the beginning of Syntax, I have postponed the rest of the syntax of such words till after the treatment of the cases, in order to secure a more natural progression in the study of syntactic details.

No attempt has been made to retain the old numbering of the sections, for the necessary insertion of new matter would have resulted in exhausting the patience of both teacher and pupil by a complicated system of references. The book has been divided only into sections and subsections, with occasional notes, the three kinds of divisions being distinguished by type of different sizes.

The main sections sometimes consist of two or three numbered paragraphs. This arrangement allows the most detailed reference without the use of longer indications than 323, 2, *b*, or 168, *c*, Note 1.

In the matter of pronunciation I have made no reference to the so-called English method. The time seems ripe for sparing the teacher the necessity of choosing between a system accepted by the scholarly world as substantially correct and one which, though still somewhat sheltered by a conservative tradition, makes the mastery of quantity and even of word-formation unnecessarily difficult.

The third declension is a stumbling-block in the young learner's progress, because he does not readily see any resemblance between the nouns there treated, such as appears in the other declensions. This is due partly to the varied aspect of the consonant-stems, and partly to the mixing of *i*-stem forms with consonant-stem forms. Both the strict grouping by stems and the division according to the form of the nominative singular given in certain German grammars are unsatisfactory, because the groups cross each other, and thus destroy the unity of classification. I have tried to meet the difficulty by grouping the consonant-stems simply according to their behavior toward the letter *s*, and by presenting the *i*-stems in a progressive series, showing different stages in the absorption of consonant-stem forms.

The obscurity which envelops the subjunctive mood I have tried to render as slightly opaque as possible. Examples have been supplied with rather unusual copiousness, because I believe that the contemplation of examples is the surest way to acquire a feeling for the subtle differences between the subjunctive and the indicative, especially in those uses in which it seems to the novice as if the ancients employed either mood quite indifferently.

With regard to the arrangement of words in sentences, my own studies have led me to views somewhat at variance with those commonly held. My reasons for the difference, in its most important detail, I have explained briefly in a footnote on

page 382, and I venture to trust that they may be found convincing.

Throughout the revision I have tried to keep in mind the needs of the beginner, and when it has been necessary to introduce the results of modern philological research, I have tried to state them as simply and definitely as possible. At the same time, I have endeavored to furnish the more advanced pupil with all that is essential to his work both at school and in college, until the time when an exhaustive grammar becomes a necessity to him. I have especially aimed at treating the more difficult topics in such a way as to be clear, while leaving as little as possible to be unlearned when the pupil's study becomes more mature and scientific. Thus, among many things, I have followed the growing custom of German scholars in abandoning the character *j*, while retaining the distinction between *u* and *v*.

A mass of rare exceptions to rules and of small irregularities in the linguistic usage of the less known Latin writers has been excluded from the present book. Such details are an unnecessary encumbrance in a grammar intended for student use rather than exhaustive reference, and they are accessible to those who need them in larger grammars and lexicons. This retrenchment has, however, failed to reduce the volume of the book, because of the improvement in the size of the type which the publishers have been good enough to make for me.

Whatever books seemed likely to help me have, of course, been freely brought into service, but I may mention, as of particularly constant assistance, Kühner's "*Ausführliche Grammatik der lateinischen Sprache*," A. Goldbacher's "*Lateinische Grammatik für Schulen*," Allen and Greenough's "*Latin Grammar*," and Anton Marx's "*Hülfsbüchlein für die Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben*." To H. J. Roby's *Latin Grammar* I am indebted for many examples in illustration of the uses of the subjunctive, and to W. Brambach's "*Hülfsbüchlein für lateinische Rechtschreibung*" for the treatment of prepositions in compounds. Other books from which I have derived profit will be found quoted in the body of the Grammar.

I would express my sincere thanks to my friends Professor F. D. Allen and Mr. A. L. K. Volkmann for their kindly criticism and valuable suggestions, and to my friend Professor J. B. Greenough for his generous encouragement and many useful hints. I also take pleasure in acknowledging my indebtedness to Mr. John Tetlow, head-master of the Girls' Latin and High Schools of Boston, and to Mr. L. C. Hull, of the Lawrenceville Academy at Lawrenceville, New Jersey, for their kindness in reading my manuscript and in making suggestions by which the Grammar has profited not a little. In verifying the references and some of the examples I have been greatly aided by Mr. H. W. Haley and Mr. F. W. Nicolson of the graduate department of Harvard University.

HENRY PREBLE.

CAMBRIDGE, *November 3, 1888.*

NOTE.

The following list of some of the most useful recent works on subjects connected with Latin Grammar is given for the assistance of those who wish to carry on their study in special directions.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTORY.

1. GRAMMAR is the study of the way in which thought is expressed by means of WORDS combined in SENTENCES.

LATIN GRAMMAR is the study of the way in which the Romans thus expressed thought.

2. Grammar is naturally divided into five parts, according to the point of view from which words are treated, as follows : —

i. PRONUNCIATION, treating of the letters and the sounds of which words are composed.

ii. INFLECTION, treating of the changes of form which words undergo to show how they are related to each other.

iii. WORD-FORMATION, treating of the way in which words have grown and the elements of which they consist.

iv. SYNTAX, treating of the way in which words are put together in sentences.

v. VERSIFICATION, treating of the way in which words are arranged, according to the length of their syllables, to form verse.

PRONUNCIATION (*Ēnūntiātiō*).

ALPHABET (*Elementa*).

3. The Latin alphabet consists properly of twenty-three letters : A (pronounced ah), B (bay*), C (kay), D

* The slight vanish heard in the sound of English "ay" does not exist in Latin. "Eh" more exactly represents the Latin sound, but "bay,"

(day), E (ay), F (ef), G (gay), H (hah), I (ee), K (kah), L (el), M (em), N (en), O (oh), P (pay), Q (koo), R (air), S (ess), T (tay), V (oo), X (ix), and two taken, during Cicero's life-time, from the Greeks, — Y (ü *) and Z (zēta, pronounced zayta). These two letters were used only in foreign, especially Greek, words.

a. The Latin alphabet as it has come down to us in inscriptions consisted of capital letters only. There are, however, indications that the Romans had for every-day writing some sort of running hand, and traces of this seem to exist in the Latin manuscripts of the Middle Ages, from which are derived the letters now used for printing both English and Latin.

b. The Romans used I and V as both vowels and consonants, calling them in the latter use I *cōnsonāns* and V *cōnsonāns* respectively. Modern usage confines V to the consonant use, and introduces U as the vowel. It has also been the custom for a century or more to use the form J for I *cōnsonāns* and to confine I to the vowel use, but the more common usage of the present day rejects J and uses I, as the Romans did, as both vowel and consonant.

NOTE. It is not so inconsistent as it would at first sight seem thus to distinguish U and V, but reject J. This form J is a wholly modern one, unknown to even the latest Romans, while a round form of V does occur in the early manuscripts, though no distinction of vowel and consonant is observed between it and the sharp form. Practically, also, the distinction of U and V is of much greater convenience to the learner than that of I and J.

c. K disappeared from use very early except before a at the beginning of a few words, as *Kaesō*, *Kalendae*, *Karthāgō*, and its place was taken by C. Even the words mentioned were often spelled with C, except when abbreviated.

d. C originally had the sound of our g, and the form G was not developed till later, when K had disappeared, and confusion arose from the use of C to represent two sounds. Then the

"kay," etc., seem less likely to confuse the pupil than "beh," "keh," "gheh," etc.

* I. e., German ü or French u.

new form G took the old sound of C, and C kept the sound of K which it had acquired. In the abbreviation of certain names beginning with G, however, C was retained, as C. = *Gāius*, CN. = *Gnaeus*, etc.

e. X is equivalent to **cs** or **gs**, and except in compounds is always written for them.

f. **II** and **IĪ** are generally written (and spoken) as **i** and **ī** respectively, even in compounds, as *Vēī* (for *Vēī̄*), *cōnsilī* (for *cōnsilī̄*), *cōnicīō*, *ābicīō*,* etc. (from *con*, *ab*, etc., and *iaciō*). But **IĪ** is frequent in the plural of common nouns and adjectives.

4. The alphabet is divided into

i. **VOWELS** (*litterae vōcālēs*), which by themselves represent full articulate sounds.

ii. **CONSONANTS** (*litterae cōnsonantēs*), so called because to make articulate sounds they have to be uttered *with* a vowel.

5. The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u, y**.†

6. When two vowels come together in one syllable the combination is called a **DIPHTHONG** (*diphthongus*).

7. The diphthongs occurring in Latin are (common) **ae, au, oe**; (rare) **ei, eu, ui**.

a. **ei** occurs perhaps only in the interjection *ei* (*hei*); **ui** is almost as rare, being found in the pronouns *cui* and *huic*, and the interjection *hui*. In early Latin **ai, oi, and ou** also occur.

8. Occasionally these vowels, instead of being united into a diphthong, have each its own syllable. The second vowel is then generally marked with the so-called diæresis, thus (**· ·**); as, *āērīs*, genitive singular of *āēr* (air), in distinction from *aerīs*, genitive singular of *aes* (copper).

* For the quantity of the first vowel in these compounds see 299, a.

† The vowels are sometimes classified as **OPEN** (**a**), **MEDIAL** (**e** and **o**), and **CLOSE** (**i, u, and y**). Furthermore, **e, i, and y** are sometimes spoken of as **SHARP** or **CLEAR**, **a, o, and u** as **DULL**, with regard to the character of their sounds. A distinction is also found in some grammars between **i, u, and y** as **SOFT** vowels, and **a, e, and o** as **HARD** vowels.

9. The consonants are divided into —

i. SEMI-VOWELS (*sēmivōcālēs*): f, i cōnsonāns, l, m, n, r, s, v.

ii. MUTES (*mūtāe*): b, c, d, g, k, p, q, t.

iii. DOUBLE CONSONANTS (*litterae duplicēs*): x, z.

a. h is properly not a letter at all, but only the sign of the rough breathing.

NOTE. The mutes are so called, because they represent *no* articulate sound without a vowel; the semi-vowels, because they stand between the mutes and the vowels in articulateness. It will be seen that the names of the semi-vowels begin with the vowel element, while the names of the mutes end with it.

10. The semi-vowels are subdivided into —

i. LIQUIDS (*liquidae*, i. e., smooth sounds): l, m, n, r, of which m and n are also called NASALS (*nāsālēs*, i. e., nose sounds).

ii. SPIRANTS (*spīrantēs*, i. e., breathing sounds): f, i, s, v, of which s is also called a SIBILANT (*sībilāns*, i. e., hissing sound).

a. The double consonant z is also a spirant and a sibilant.

11. The mutes are subdivided into

i. SMOOTH (*tenuēs* *): c, k, q, p, t.

ii. MIDDLE (*mediae*): g, b, d.

[iii. ROUGH or ASPIRATES (*āspīrātae*): ch, ph, th.]†

a. The mutes ph and th and the breathing h are also spirants. Spirants are sometimes called FRICATIVES.

12. The consonants are also divided, according to the organ of speech chiefly used in uttering them, into

i. PALATALS ‡ (*palātālēs*, i. e., palate letters): c, k, q, g, l, and n (before a palatal).

* This word really means "fine" or "thin," and was applied to the mutes through a mistaken analogy.

† The aspirates were not used until just before Cicero's time. They were at first sounded as the smooth mutes followed by the rough breathing, but soon became simple sounds (see 18, g).

‡ Sometimes wrongly called *gutturals* (i. e., throat letters).

ii. DENTALS * (*dentālēs*, i. e., teeth letters) : t, d, s, r, l, and n (not before a palatal).

iii. LABIALS (*labiālēs*, i. e., lip letters) : p, b, f, v, m.

a. x is a combination of a palatal, c or g, and a dental, s ; z is a combination of two dentals, d and s.

13. The letters are further distinguished, according to their *fullness* of sound, as

i. SONANTS (*sonantēs*) : the vowels, and b, d, g, i, l, m, n, r, v, z.

ii. SURDS (*surdae*) : c, f, k, p, q, s, t, x.

14. The various classifications of consonants may be tabulated thus : —

		Palatals.		Dentals.		Labials.				
Mutes	{	Smooth (surd)	c, k, q	t	{	p				
		Middle (sonant)		g		d	b			
		Aspirates (surd)		ch		th	ph			
Double		x (surd)	/	Spirants	{					
		i (sonant)		Sibilants		z (sonant)				
						s (surd)	f (surd), v (sonant)			
Semi-vowels	{	{	{	-	{	{				
							Liquids		l, r	
							(sonant)	Nasals :	n	m

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

15. The letters in Latin have each only one sound. The sounds of the vowels have each two grades, the long (*prōducta*) and the short (*correpta*).

16. The vowels are pronounced as follows : —

a long as in *father*, a short as in *Cuba* ;

e long as in *they*, e short like a in *desperate* ; †

i long as in *machine*, i short as in *cigar* ; †

o long as in *note*, o short as in *obey* ; ‡

* Sometimes called *linguals* (i. e., tongue letters).

† The sounds of short e and i are therefore nearly but not quite the same as in English *get* and *pin*.

‡ The sound of o is particularly hard to illustrate in English, and the examples given are only approximately correct. The Latin long o is a pure sound, having no tendency towards the oo sound heard at the end of our long o ; those who have heard the word “coat” pronounced by careless speakers in New England can get therefrom a clear idea of the Latin short o.

u long like oo in *food*, u short like oo in *hood*;
 y long like the long sound of French *u* or German *ü*, y
 short like the short sound of the same.

17. The diphthongs have the sounds produced by running together into one sound the vowels of which they are composed. Thus:—

æ is sounded like ay = *yes*; (ai nearly so);
 au is sounded like ow in *how*;
 ei is sounded like ei in *eight*;
 oe is sounded like oi in *coin*; (oi nearly so);
 ui is sounded nearly like wee in *sweet*;
 eu is sounded like eh-oo (*i. e.*, nearly as in English
feud, avoiding the tendency to make a short i of
 the e).

a. The early diphthong ou, having a sound between o and u, soon passed everywhere into one or the other of these letters.

b. During the early empire æ and oe became weakened so as to resemble long e in sound, and were thus often confused with it in spelling.

18. The consonants are sounded as in English, but

c and g are always hard, as in *can* and *get*.

s is always sharp, as in *sin*.

t is always pronounced as in *tent*.

v has the sound of English w in *want*.

i cōnsonāns has the sound of English y in *year*.

a. When a consonant is doubled both letters are distinctly sounded; as in *Iūp-piter*, *bel-lum*, *fer-rō*.

b. After g, q, or s, u if followed by a vowel unites closely with these letters, producing the sound heard in English *sanguine*, *queen*, *suavity*; as in *lingua*, *quārum*, *suādeō*.

But in the pronoun *suus*, *sua*, *suum*, u is a full vowel, except sometimes in verse. *Suus* thus has two syllables, *su-us*.

c. n before c, g, k, q, x, has the sound heard in English *anchor*, *anguish*, *anxious*; as in *anceps*, *ungō*, *inquit*, *anxius*.

d. m and s after a vowel at the end of a word were sounded feebly; as in *bonum*, *plēnus*.

e. **n** before **s** also had a feeble sound, producing the effect of nasalizing and lengthening the preceding vowel; as in *cōsul*, *cēnsor*, *amāns*.

f. The Romans had a tendency to pronounce final **d** like **t**, and also **b** final or before **s** like **p**; as in *haud*, *ab*, *urbs*.

g. The aspirated sounds **ch**, **ph**, and **th**, when first introduced into Latin (about 100 B. C.), had the sounds of **kh**, **ph**, and **th** in English *inkhorn*, *upheave*, *hothouse*. Afterwards **ph** came to be pronounced as in English *phantom*, and **ch** to have the sound of the German guttural **ch**, a somewhat rougher sound than English **ch** in *character*, while the sound of **th** approached that of simple **t**.

h. **e** in *est* (is) was elided in prose as well as verse, when the word before it ended in a vowel or **m**, unless the *est* was emphatic. Thus: *māgna est Dīāna Ephesiōrum* (pronounced *māgna'st*), *hōc bellum gerendum est* (pronounced *gerendum'st*).*

SYLLABLES (*Syllabae*).

19. Every Latin word has as many syllables as it has separate vowels (or diphthongs). Every syllable ends with a vowel, so far as is allowed by the following rules:—

20. A single consonant between two vowels is joined to the second vowel. Thus: *mī-les*, *so-nus*.

21. The double consonants **x** and **z**, and combinations of consonants which can begin a Latin (or English) word, also **mn**, are joined to the following vowel. Thus: *rē-xit*, *gā-za*, *ī-gnō-scō*, *ā-plau-stre*, *a-mnis*.

a. In Greek words the Greek usage is followed, by which more combinations of letters can begin a word than in Latin. We

* As in all languages, many variations from these mechanical rules occurred in Latin as pronounced by the Romans. With the extinction of the nation disappeared, of course, the exact pronunciation of their language. The careful student, however, will observe, as he advances, numerous facts in the growth of Latin forms, which shed light upon the finer points of pronunciation.

write, therefore, *Te-cmēs-sa*, *cŷ-cnus*, etc. Even *Pha-tnae* is found, although *tn* cannot begin a Greek word.

22. Other combinations of consonants are separated, the first letter being joined to the preceding vowel, all the others to the vowel which follows. Thus: *āc-tus*, *pran-di-um*, *in-cōn-sul-tō*, *vic-trīx*, *ex-cer-ptum*, *mōn-stra*.

23. Compounds are separated into their parts. Thus: *ab-eō*, *sīc-ut*. So also the apparent compounds like *quis-piam*.

24. But compounds are treated like simple words in the two following instances: —

a. If the first part has lost an ending. Thus: *mā-gna-ni-mus* (*māgnus* + *animus*), *lon-gae-vos* (*longus* + *aevom*).

b. If the second part would otherwise begin with a combination of consonants impossible at the beginning of a word. Thus: *prōr-sus* (*prō* + *versus*). The first consonant in this case is almost always *r*.

25. When the first part of a compound ended with the same letter with which the second part began, the first of these letters was dropped. Thus: *trān-scribō* (*trāns* + *scribō*), *dī-spiciō* (*dis* + *speciō*).

NOTE 1. The last syllable of a word is called the **ULTIMATE**, the last but one the **PENULTIMATE** or **PENULT**, the last but two the **ANTEPENULTIMATE** or **ANTEPENULT**.

NOTE 2. A syllable preceded by a vowel is called **PURE** (*pūra*), as *-us* in *deus*; by a consonant, **IMPURE** (*impūra*), as *-stat* in *cōnstat*.

NOTE 3. An initial syllable ending with a vowel, and any other syllable beginning with a vowel, is called **OPEN**; other syllables are called **CLOSE**. Thus in *deus* both syllables are open, in *obstat* both are close.

QUANTITY (*Quantitās*).

26. By **QUANTITY** is meant the relative time required to pronounce a letter or syllable. Quantity is either **LONG** (*prōducta*), **SHORT** (*correpta*), or **COMMON** (*anceps*).

a. The time required to pronounce a short syllable is called a *mora*. A long syllable requires twice as much time, or two *morae*.

27. Syllables are long, short, or common BY NATURE (*nātūrā prōductae, correptae, ancipitēs*) when their quantity is the same as that of the vowel (or diphthong) contained in them. Thus: *ěādēm, cōnsŭlēs*.

28. A syllable is long BY POSITION (*positiōne prōducta*) when it contains a short vowel followed by two or more consonants or by one of the double consonants. Thus: *amantis, absterget, extrā*.

29. But a syllable containing a short vowel followed by a mute with a liquid after it is *common by position*,* unless the mute belongs to the first part of a compound. Thus in *patris* the first syllable is common, but in *oblātum* (*ob + lātum*) it is long.

a. In real Latin words only *l* and *r* after a mute thus make a syllable common, but in Greek words *m* and *n* also do so. Thus the first syllable in *Tecmēssa* is common.

NOTE. The pupil should be cautioned that short vowels are *always pronounced* short, even when they occur in syllables which are long or common.

ACCENT (*Accentus*).

30. By ACCENT is meant the way in which some one syllable of every word is uttered to make it more prominent than the other syllables.

a. The Latin accent was of essentially the same nature as English accent; that is, it consisted of a stress of voice upon the accented syllable, but was not so strongly marked as in English. On the other hand, the higher tone or pitch with which an accented syllable is uttered was more marked in Latin than in English. †

* There are also a few cases of *common vowels*. The quantity of these was originally between long and short, and so in poetry they are sometimes used as long, sometimes as short; in prose they are pronounced short.

† The Roman grammarians of the early empire tried to introduce an artificial system of accents based upon the Greek distinctions of acute,

31. Words of one syllable are regarded as accented; as, *mē'*, *séd*, *párs*.

But see 34-36.

32. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first syllable; as, *pa'-ter*, *vē'-nī*.

33. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult if that is long (either by nature or by position), otherwise upon the antepenult; * as, *i-mā'-gō*, *a-mán-tis*, but *dó-mi-nus*, *té-ne-bræ*.

a. In early Latin the accent could stand farther back than the antepenult.

ENCLITICS AND PROCLITICS.

34. Some short words are so closely connected with the word before or after them that they have no accent of their own.

35. Words thus closely attached to the word *preceding* them are called ENCLITICS (*enclitica*), and are joined in writing with the preceding word. The syllable before an enclitic in all cases takes the accent. Thus: *virī bonī clārī'que*, good and famous men; *Graecāne an Rōmāna est mulier*, is the woman Greek or Roman?

a. The commonest enclitics are the following particles and suffixes: *que*, and; *ve*, or; *ne* (interrog. particle); *ce* (demonstr. suffix); and the suffixes attached to pronouns to strengthen them (see 179, *b* and *c*, and 186, *a*): *met*, *pe* (*ppe*), *pse*, *pte*, *te*.

b. *Inde* is enclitic in *deinde*, *proinde*, *subinde*, etc., thus throwing the accent upon the first syllable.

36. PROCLITICS (*proclitica*) are pronounced as part of the *following* word, without affecting the accent. The chief proclitics are the negatives and the prepositions of

grave, and circumflex accents, but the treatment of this system does not belong in a school grammar. See Müller's *Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft*; B.: "Lateinische Grammatik," pp. 192 ff.

* For one or two classes of exceptions, see Gen. and Voc. of nouns in *-ius* and *-ium*, 97, 5, *a*; certain compounds of *faciō*, 298, *b*.

one syllable. Thus: *nōn ómnis 'moriar*, I shall not all die; *ad úrbem eāmus*, let us go to town.

a. Proclitics receive an accent if emphatic; so also the prepositions when separated from their nouns; as, *in Gallōrum fīnēs profectus est*, he set forth into the country of the Gauls.

NOTE. The accent of a compound word of more than two syllables often helps fix the quantity of a penultimate vowel in the simple word of two syllables. Thus, the accent of *insā'nus*, *cōnscrī'bō*, *intēlegit*, fixes the quantity of the penult of *sānus*, *scribō*, *legō*, in the mind, because accent, which belongs also to English words, is easier to remember than quantity.

RULES OF QUANTITY.

37. Every vowel is pronounced long or short, according to its own quantity, without regard to the kind of syllable in which it stands. The few common vowels are pronounced short in prose.

NOTE 1. Long vowels are marked thus (ˉ) in this grammar, common vowels thus (˘); short vowels are left unmarked, except when the mark (˘) is useful to contrast them sharply with a long vowel.

NOTE 2. Vowels followed by two or more consonants (hidden quantities) are treated as short, when their quantity has not been ascertained, at least with probability.

38. A vowel before another vowel or before a diphthong is short; as, *e* in *meus*; *i* in *patriae*.

a. The breathing *h* has no effect as regards quantity. Thus, *e* in *vehō* is short.

b. Exceptions:—

1. *i* is long in *dīus* (for *dīvos*).

2. The first vowel is common in *Dīāna*, *Ēheu*, *ōhē*.

For other exceptions see 146, and 246.

c. Greek words regularly retain their original quantity; as, *Aenēās*, *Ixīōn*, *hērōēs*.

d. But a few words which have *αι* in Greek have *ei* in Latin. These are *chorēa*, *Malēa*, *gynaecēum*. So some have *ī* in Latin; as, *acadēmīa*. *Balīneum* and probably *platea* seem to have been always used with the penultimate vowel short. These variations were due to dialectic forms in Greek.

NOTE. The Greek letters are in most cases represented by the corresponding Latin letters; but *v* is represented by *y*, *κ* by *c*, and *φ*, *χ*, and *θ*, by *ph*, *ch*, *th*, respectively, and the diphthongs are reproduced thus: —

αι by *ae*,

ει by $\begin{cases} \bar{i} & \text{usually, } \bar{e} & \text{rarely, before a consonant,} \\ \bar{o} & \text{“ } \bar{i} & \text{“ before a vowel,} \end{cases}$

οι by *oe*, *αυ* by *au*, *ευ* by *eu*, *ου* by *u*.

39. All diphthongs are long; as, *āurum*, *pōēnāē*.

a. But *ae* in *prae* when compounded with words beginning with a vowel is short; as, *praeacūtus*.

This diphthong is sometimes long in *Statius*.

40. All vowels produced by contraction (see 61) are long, whether consonants had originally stood between them or not; as, *ālūs* (for *alius*), *cōgō* (for *coagō*), *iū-nior* (for *iuvenior*).

41. All vowels before *i cōnsonāns*, *nf*, *ns*, *gm*, and *gn*, are long; as, *Māia*, *Pompēius*, *ēius*, *cūius*, *amāns*, *īnferō*, *āgmen*, *rēgnum*.

a. Exceptions are *biūgus*, *quadriūgus*, Greek words in *-egma*, and some others.

42. All vowels before *nt* and *nd* are short; as, *amantis*, *portendō*.

a. But in *nūndinae*, *nōndum*, *prēndō*, the vowel is long by contraction.

b. Further exceptions are *ūndecim*, *quīndecim*, *vēndō*, *vīndēmia*, and some Greek proper names like *Epamīnōndūs*.

For vowels before *sc* in inceptive verbs, see 237, *a*.

43. *I* is always long before *v*, except in *nivis* and the other case-forms of *nix*, snow.

44. The quantity of a vowel remains the same in all forms of a given word and its derivatives, unless some special cause comes in to change it.

a. Instances are —

1. Nominatives in *-ns* from oblique cases with short vowels; as, *amāns*, but *amantis*; *mēns*, but *mentī*; *docēns*, but *docentem*.

2. Cases where the long vowel of a simple word is shortened in a derivative because the accent has left it; as, *ā'cer*, *ācérbus*.

Special Rules.

FINAL SYLLABLES AND MONOSYLLABLES.

I. Vowels.

45. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long; as, *dē*, *mē*, *quī*.

a. Exceptions are the enclitic particles *ne*, *que*, *ve*, *ce*, *pe* (*ppe*), *pse*, *pte*, which are short.

46. Final *a*, *e*, *y* are generally *short*; final *i*, *o*, *u* are almost always *long*.*

a. Exceptions: —

(1.) Final *a* is long in the ablative case (see 91), and usually in verbs and particles, but short in *ēia*, *īta*, *quia*, and *puta* (= suppose).

(2.) Final *e* is long in the fifth declension (see 132) and in the imperative of the second conjugation (see 222); also in most adverbs, but short in *bene*, *male*, *saepe*, *īferne*, *superne*, and words like *facile*, *temere* (really neut. adj.).

(3.) Final *i* is common in *mihĩ*, *tibĩ*, *sibĩ*, *ibĩ*, *ubĩ*.

(4.) Final *o* is short in *immo*, *cito*, *īlico*, *duo*, and generally in *egō*, *homō*. It is common in *modō*, but short in its compounds.

A few other exceptions will be found in their appropriate places later. (Cf. 62, c, 94, 115, 124, 158.)

II. Consonants.

47. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable ending in a consonant are long; as, *sāl*, *pār*.

a. But *cor*, *fel*, *mel*, *os* (*ossis*), *vir*, and probably *vas* (*vadis*) are short; also those in *-al* and *-il*, except *sāl*.

48. Other words of one syllable and all final syllables are short if they end in any consonant except *c* or *s*.

* The enclitic particles given in 45, *a*, may be regarded as falling under this rule, since they are never used alone.

a. The following, however, are long: *ēn*, *nōn*, *quīn*, *sīn*, *cūr*, *liēn*, *Hibēr*, and Greek nouns like *āēr*, *aethēr*, etc.

For other exceptions see 93, d, 94, 97, 7, 98, a, 124, and 125.

49. Monosyllables and final syllables in -c are long.

a. But *nec*, *fac*, *dōnec* are short always, the pronouns *hīc* and (if nominative or accusative) *hōc* sometimes.

50. Monosyllables and final syllables in -as, -es, -os are long, those in -is, -us, -ys are short.

a. Exceptions : —

(1.) as is short in *anas*, duck.

(2.) es is short in the singular of nouns in -es (genitive -itis, -etis, or -idis) (see 102), and in the plural of Greek nouns of the third declension (see 124).

(3.) os is short in *compos*, *impos*, and the compounds of *os* (*ossis*) ; also in the singular of the second declension (see 95).

(4.) is and us are long in the plural of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns (see 91, 95, 108, 143, 155, 4, 178, 180).

(5.) is is also long in the present of the fourth conjugation (see 222), and in the verb forms *fīs*, *īs*, *sīs*, *vīs*, *velīs*, and their compounds.

(6.) us is also long in the genitive singular of the fourth declension (see 126), and in the nominative singular of nouns whose genitive ends in -ūtis, -ūdis, or -ūris.

For other exceptions see 94, 98, 101, 124, 125, 215, and 429.

51. Perfects and supines of two syllables (see 233 ff.) have the penultimate vowel long if only a single consonant follows it ; as, *vēnī*, *fūgī*, *vōtum*.

a. Except *bibī*, *dedī*, *fidī*, *scidī*, *stetī*, *stitī*, *tulī* ; and *citum*, *datum*, *itum*, *litum*, *quitum*, *ratum*, *rutum*, *satum*, *situm*, *statum*.

52. The antepenultimate vowel is short in verbs in -iō of the third conjugation (see 230, f) ; as, *capiō*, *faciō*, *fodiō*, *cupiō*.

53. Compound words usually retain the quantity of their parts even when vowels are changed in composition.

INFLECTION (*Flexiō*).

INTRODUCTORY.

Stems and Roots.

54. Words consist of two parts, the STEM and the ENDING.

55. (1.) The STEM belongs to all the forms of the word and expresses the meaning in a *general* way only.

(2.) The ENDING indicates the grammatical relations of the word (gender, case, person, etc.), and thus shows how the meaning is applied in particular instances.

Thus, the word *vōx* (voice) consists of a stem *vōc-* and an ending *-s*; the ending is changed to express different applications of the idea "voice;" as, *vōcum*, of voices, *vōce*, with a voice.

56. Stems themselves consist of two parts, a simple form called the ROOT and an addition called a SUFFIX.

57. The ROOT is the part which belongs to all the words of any one group, and expresses the meaning in a still more general way than the stem.

Thus, the verb *agō*, the adjective *agilis*, and the noun *agitātiō* have the common root *ag-*.

NOTE. Roots are often indicated thus: ✓*ag*.

a. Some roots are used as stems without taking any suffix, and some nouns add no ending to the stem in the nominative case.*

PHONETIC CHANGES.

NOTE. In the formation and growth of words various changes of letters take place as the parts of the word are put together. These changes are

* These are survivals from the earlier periods of language. At first there were only roots, the suffixes and other endings being themselves independent roots. Then two roots (later more) were united together and presently coalesced into a single form (stem period). Finally the inflectional endings became differentiated from other suffixes, and thus words, as we know them, were developed. All word-formation is thus in reality composition.



the result of an effort to make a combination of sounds (1) easy to pronounce or (2) more agreeable to the ear than the original combination. In the first case the change is called *Phonetic Decay*; in the second, *Euphonic Change*.

Vowel Changes.

58. The Latin vowels are produced chiefly with the lips and palate, as follows : —

a is produced by keeping both lips and palate wide open.

o is produced by contracting the lips somewhat.

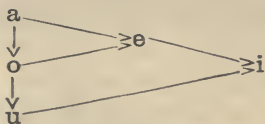
u is produced by contracting the lips as much as possible.

e is produced by contracting the palate somewhat.

i is produced by contracting the palate as much as possible.

y is produced by contracting both lips and palate as much as possible.

59. Vowels, especially when short, tend to flatten from a through o to u or to weaken from a through e to i. Sometimes also they change from o or u *across* to e or i, as in the following figure : —



Thus : —

saltō *but* exsultō.

servos *and* servus.

factus *but* infectus.

capiō *but* incipiō.

nōmen *but* nōminis.

voster *and* vester.

a. Certain consonants have a special effect upon the vowel before them. Thus, a vowel before l tends to become u, before r to become e. Cf. *epistula* for *epistola*, *vertō* for *vortō*, *pēiērō* for *periūrō*.

b. On the other hand, u was avoided after v until about the end of the classical period. Therefore we find forms like *servos*, *volgus*, *volt*, in the time of Cicero and Cæsar, though a similar o after other consonants had changed to u, as in *fīcus*, *multum*, *vehunt*.

c. So after u this o was retained longer than elsewhere, or else cu was written for quo. Thus, while in Plautus and Terence we have *equos* and *quom* beside *multum*, we find later *ecus* beside *equus*, and *cum* always, never *quum*. On the other hand, *suus*, *tuus*, etc., are the classical forms.

d. u in words like *lubet*, *æstumō*, and in superlatives (especially after t and s) was retained till Cicero's time, instead of becoming i as in other similar cases. Thus: *māxumus*, *optumus*, beside *pulcherrimus*.

60. The diphthongs are sometimes weakened to single long vowels, especially in composition. Then æ becomes ī, œ becomes ū, au becomes ō or ū. Thus: —

quaerō but conquīrō.

plaudō but explōdō.

moenia but mūniō.

claudō but inclūdō.

61. Two vowels coming together are often contracted into one long vowel. The first vowel then usually prevails, but o prevails over the weaker vowels u, e, i, whether before or after them. Thus we have —

mālō for mā(v)olō.

dēbeō from dē-habeō.

amāstī for amā(v)istī.

nōlo for nē(v)olō.

amārunť for amā(v)ērunt.

iūnior for iu(v)enior.

nōrunt for nō(v)ērunt.

fructūs for fructuis.

cōgō from co(m)-āgō.

bīgae for bi-(i)ugae.

sīrim for sī(v)erim.

62. Vowels originally long had in many cases been shortened in classical times, especially vowels in final syllables (cf. 46–50).

a. Thus, final a in the nominative of the first declension was originally long.

b. Also many final syllables in -l, -r, -t, -m. Cf. *calcar*, *honor*, *amat*, *amem*, beside *calcāris*, *honōris*, *amūtis*, *amēmus*, etc.

c. Nouns and verbs in -o remained long generally through the classical period, but gradually shortened in the time of the empire. So *sermō*, later *sermō* ; *amō*, later *amō*, etc.

63. The weaker vowels (e and i) were often dropped; the stronger vowels (a, o, u) occasionally.

i. In the middle of a word (*syncopē*): —

dextra from *dextera*. *nauta* from *nāvita*.
vinculum from *vinculum*.

ii. At the end of a word (*apocopē*): —

ut from *utī*. *neu* from *nēve*.

64. Between consonants hard to pronounce together a parasitic vowel (e or u) was sometimes developed, especially in foreign names. Thus: —

ager from *stem agro-*. *Alcumēna* for *Alemēna*.

Consonant Changes.

The commonest consonant changes are as follows: —

65. A consonant before l, r, or s is often assimilated. Thus: —

puella for *puer(u)la*. *parricīda* for *patricīda*.
pressī for *premsī*.

66. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus: —

i. b before s or t becomes p; as: —

scripsī for *scribsī*. *scriptum* for *scribtum*.

ii. g before t becomes c; as: —

āctus for *agtus*.

For exceptions see 101, a, and 690, 1.

iii. c before a liquid becomes g; as: —

sēgmentum for *secrementum*.

p and t sometimes thus become b and d.

iv. d, and sometimes t before t, become s; as: —

claustrum for *claudtrum*.

v. m before a palatal or dental becomes n; as: —

tunc for *tunc(e)*. *eundem* for *eumdem*.

In loose compounds **m** remains; cf. *numquam*, etc.

vi. A labial mute before **n** becomes **m**; as: —
somnum *for* *sopnum*.

So **n** before a labial mute or **m** becomes **m**; as: —
imbellis *for* *inbellis*.

vii. **c** and **g** unite with a following **s** to make **x**; as: —
dux *for* *ducs*. *rēx* *for* *rēgs*.

67. **s** between two vowels or before **m** or **n** becomes **r**; as: —

eram *for* *esam*. cf. *generis* *from* *genus*.
veternus *for* *vetusnus* (cf. 59, a).

68. **v** before a consonant becomes **u**, and then if preceded by **a** forms the diphthong **au**. Thus: —

solūtus *for* *solvtus*. *cautus* *for* *cavtus*.

Cf. 63, i.

69. Consonants are sometimes dropped (elision).

i. Rarely at the beginning of a word, as: —

nōscō *for* *gnōscō*. *lātum* *for* *tlātum*.
nātus *for* *gnātus*. *lis* *for* *stlis*.

ii. In the middle of a word, the preceding vowel being then generally lengthened. Thus: —

(1.) **c** and **g** between a liquid and a following **s** or **t**; as: —

spārsī *for* *spārgsī*, cf. *spargō*.

or before **m** or **n**; as: —

iūmentum *for* *iugmentum*, cf. *iugō*.
lūna *for* *lūcna*, cf. *lūceō*.

(2.) **d** and **t** before **s** and sometimes before other letters, as: —

pēs *for* *peds*, cf. *gen. pedis*. *rāmus* *for* *rādmus*, cf. *rādix*.
clausī *for* *claudsī*, cf. *claudō*. *suāvis* *for* *suādvis*, cf. *suādeō*.

For exceptions see 66, iv.

(3.) **n** before **s**, unless **t** has already fallen out, as: —

sanguis *for* sanguīns. vicēsimus *for* vicēnsimus.
fōrmōsus *for* fōrmōnsus.

but mōns *for* monts, *cf.* *gen.* montis.
amāns *for* amants, *cf.* *gen.* amantis, *etc.*

a. In Greek words, *nt* fall out as in the original; as, *elephās*, *elephantis*.

(4.) *i* cōnsonāns before a vowel *i* (*cf.* 3, *f*); as: —
plēbēi *for* plēbēi. ābicīo *for* abiiciō, *etc.*

(5.) *r* occasionally and *s* often; as: —
pēierō *for* periūrō. iūdex *for* iūsdex.
trēdecim *for* trēsdecim.

(6.) *v* often, and then if two vowels came together contraction takes place; as: —

iūtus *for* iuvtus. mōtus *for* movtus. aetās *for* aevitās.

iii. At the end of a word, whenever two consonants come together, the second, unless it be *s*, is dropped and the preceding vowel not lengthened. Thus: —

mel, *cf.* *gen.* mellis. cor, *cf.* *gen.* cordis.

In *os* (*ossis*), *s* is dropped, as *ss* cannot end a word.

70. A parasitic *p* is developed between *m* and a following *s* or *t*; as: —

hiemps *for* hiems. sūmpsī *for* sūmsī. sūmptum *for* sūmtum.

71. Kindred consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus: —

c and *g*, as *trecēnī*, *trīginta*.

d and *t*, as *set*, *haut*, beside *sed*, *haud*.

t and *s* in many suffixes, as *to*, *so*, *tūrā*, *sūrā* (*cf.* 255, 1, and 274).

r and *l* in the suffixes *rā*, *lū*; *ris*, *lis*, *etc.* (*cf.* 258, and 260).

72. The liquids *l* and *r* sometimes change places with the root vowel accompanying them (*metathesis*). Thus: —

cernō *and* crētum. sternō *and* strātum.

Other consonants very rarely do the same.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

73. There are eight classes of words in Latin, called PARTS OF SPEECH. They are Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. The last four are sometimes called PARTICLES.

74. (1.) A NOUN — also called SUBSTANTIVE — (*nōmen*) is the name of something; as, *Caesar*; *Rōma*, Rome; *avis*, bird; *virtūs*, virtue.

(2.) An ADJECTIVE (*adiectivum*) is a word used with a noun to express a quality of it or to describe it in some way; as, *bonus*, good; *māgnus*, great; *tantus*, so great.

(3.) A PRONOUN (*prōnōmen*) is a word used to supply the place of a noun; as, *tū*, thou; *ille*, he or that; *quī*, who.

(4.) A VERB (*verbum*) is a word by which something is affirmed or stated; as, *regit*, he rules; *eram*, I was.

(5.) An ADVERB (*adverbium*) is a word used to limit or describe the meaning of a verb, adjective, or another adverb; as, *bene*, well; *saepe*, often.

NOTE. Observe that a descriptive adverb has the same relation to its verb which a descriptive adjective has to its noun. Thus, in the expression "he acted nobly," the adverb "nobly" limits "acted" in just the same way in which "noble" limits "act" in the expression "a noble act."

(6.) A PREPOSITION (*praepositio*) is a word which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word; as, *cum*, with; *sub*, under.

(7.) A CONJUNCTION (*coniunctio*) is a word used to connect other words or combinations of words; as, *et*, and; *nam*, for.

(8.) An INTERJECTION (*interiectio*) is a word used to make an exclamation expressing some emotion; as, *ecce*, lo! *euge*, well done!

NOTE. The inflection of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns is called DE-
 CLENSION (*dēclinātiō*), that of verbs, CONJUGATION (*coniugātiō*). Some
 adjectives and the adverbs derived from them also undergo COMPARISON
 (*comparātiō*) to show the degree of their application. The other parts of
 speech are not inflected.

NOUNS.

75. Nouns (*nōmina*) are divided into —

i. ABSTRACT (*nōmina abstrācta*), or names of qualities,
 actions, or notions; as, *bonitās*, goodness; *ōtium*, rest;
fēstīnātiō, haste.

ii. CONCRETE (*nōmina concrēta*), or names of individual
 objects.

76. Concrete nouns are divided into —

i. PROPER nouns (*nōmina propria*), or names of per-
 sons, places, etc.; as, *Caesar*; *Rōma*, Rome.

ii. COMMON or APPELLATIVE nouns (*nōmina appellā-
 tīva*), or names of *classes* of objects; as, *homō*, man;
avis, bird; *mendācium*, lie.

iii. COLLECTIVE nouns (*nōmina collēctīva*), or names
 of *groups* of objects; as, *exercitus*, army; *populus*, the
 people.

iv. MATERIAL nouns (*nōmina māteriālia*), or names of
 materials; as, *lignum*, wood; *cibus*, food.

77. Nouns have GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE.

GENDER (*Genus*).

78. The GENDER of a noun is its distinction in regard
 to sex. There are three genders in Latin, MASCULINE
 (*māsculīnum*), FEMININE (*fēmīnīnum*), and NEUTER
 (*neutrum*).

79. Gender is of two kinds: NATURAL, corresponding
 to the real sex of the object, and GRAMMATICAL, attached
 to particular word-endings without any regard to sex.
 The natural gender has the precedence of grammatical
 gender in nouns denoting male or female beings.

80. Masculine are the following classes of nouns : —

- i. Names of male beings and of nations.
- ii. Names of rivers, winds, and months.

NOTE. The words for river (*fluvius* and *amnis*), for wind (*ventus*), and for month (*mēnsis*) are masculine, and the individual names were probably at first adjectives agreeing with these.

81. Feminine are the following classes of nouns : —

- i. Names of female beings.
- ii. Names of countries, towns, islands, trees, plants, and usually gems.

82. Neuter are the following classes of nouns : —

- i. Names of the letters and indeclinable nouns.
- ii. Words used merely as such without grammatical relations ; as, *pater est disyllabum*, [the word] father is a word of two syllables.
- iii. Other parts of speech, phrases, and clauses used as nouns.

83. Some words are either masculine or feminine, and such are said to be of common gender (*genus commūne*) ; as, *hostis*, enemy ; *bōs*, ox or cow.

NOTE. When such nouns denote things their gender is sometimes called *doubtful* (*anceps*), but this term is becoming obsolete.

84. Some names of animals include both sexes, but have only one gender ; as, *passer*, m., sparrow ; *volpēs*, f., fox. They are called EPICENE nouns (*epicoena* or *prō-miscua*). They generally have the gender of their terminations.

a. When it is necessary to distinguish the sex in these nouns, the word *mās* or *fēmīna* is put in apposition with them ; as, *volpēs mās*, a male fox.

NUMBER (*Numerus*).

85. The NUMBER of a noun shows whether one thing is meant by it or more than one.

86. There are two numbers in Latin, the SINGULAR (*singulāris*), denoting one object, and the PLURAL (*plūrālis*), denoting more than one.

a. There are two instances of a lost DUAL number (*duālis*), denoting two objects; namely, *ambō*, both, and *duo*, two.

CASE (*Cāsus*).

87. The CASE of a noun shows its relation to other words.

88. There are six cases in Latin:—

(1.) The NOMINATIVE (*nōminātīvus*), which denotes the noun as a word, and especially indicates the relation of the subject to a finite verb.

(2.) The GENITIVE (*genetīvus*), which expresses relations of possession, origin, and such others as are mostly expressed by the preposition *of* in English.

(3.) The DATIVE (*datīvus*), which expresses that *to* or *for* which anything is or is done.

(4.) The ACCUSATIVE (*accūsātīvus*), which denotes the relation of an object to a transitive verb or preposition.

(5.) The VOCATIVE (*vocātīvus*), which is used to address a person or thing.

(6.) The ABLATIVE (*ablātīvus*), which expresses various adverbial relations, such as are expressed in English mostly by the prepositions *by*, *from*, *with*.

a. There are remnants of a seventh case called the LOCATIVE (*locātīvus*), which was once used to denote the place where a thing was or was done, but afterwards coalesced in most of its forms with the ablative. (See 93, 97, 3, and 112.)

b. Indications of a special case-form to denote the means or instrument of an action (INSTRUMENTAL case) also occur, but this case became early absorbed in the ablative.

c. The nominative and vocative are sometimes called DIRECT cases (*cāsūs rēctī*), i. e., uninflected cases; the others OBLIQUE cases (*cāsūs oblīquī*), i. e., inflected cases.

d. The vocative is properly not a case at all, and, except in some Greek nouns and in the singular of masculine (and feminine) nouns of the second declension ending in -OS or -US (see 95), has always the same form as the nominative.

DECLENSION (*Dēclīnātiō*).

89. There are five declensions in Latin, distinguished by the last letter of the stems which they include, or (in dictionaries) by the endings of the genitive singular. Thus : —

Declension	Stem-vowel	Ending of Genitive Singular
I.	ā	-ae
II.	o	-i
III.	i or a consonant	-is
IV.	u	-ūs
V.	ē	-ēi

a. The final letter of the stem is called the characteristic, and appears most clearly in the genitive plural, as follows : —

Declension	Ending of Gen. Plural
I.	-ārum
II.	-ōrum
III.	-ium or -um
IV.	-uum
V.	-ērum

90. The regular endings of the different cases, combined according to the laws of euphonic change, with the characteristics of the five declensions, are given on p. 26.

a. It will be noticed that when the same ending occurs in both singular and plural, it usually has a short vowel in the singular and a long one in the plural.

b. It will be seen further that —

(1.) The nominative singular of masculines and feminines generally ends in -s.

(2.) The accusative singular of masculines and feminines always ends in -m.



Stem	I.		II.		III.			IV.		V.
	-ā		-o		Consonant		-i	-u		-ē
			M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.		
N.	-a		-os, -us -er, -ir	-om -um	-s with euphonic change.	like stem.	-s with euphonic change. stem.	-us	-ū	-ēs
G.	-ae		-ī		-is			-ūs		-ēī (-eī)
D.	-ae		-ō		-ī			-uī (-ū)	-ū	-ēī (-eī)
Ac.	-am		-om -um		-em	like nom.	-im (-em)	-um	-ū	-em
V.	like nom.		-e, or like nom.	like nom.		like nom.		like nom.		like nom.
Ab.	-ā		-ō		-e		-ī (-e)	-ū		-ē
N. & V.	-ae		-ī	-a	-ēs	-a	-ēs	-ūs	-ua	-ēs
G.	-ārum (-ūm)		-ōrum (-ūm, -ōm)		-um		-ium	-uum		-ērum
D. & Ab.	-īs (-ābus)		-īs (-ōbus)			-ibus		-ibus (-ubus)		-ēbus
Ac.	-ās		-ōs	-a	-ēs	-a	-īs (-ēs)	-ūs	-ua	-ēs

Singular.

Plural.

(3.) The vocative is always like the nominative except in the singular of second declension nouns in **-os** and **-us**.

(4.) The dative and ablative plural are always alike.

(5.) The genitive plural always ends in **-um**, except occasionally in second declension nouns in **-os** and **-om**.

(6.) The accusative plural of masculines and feminines always ends in **-s**.

(7.) In neuters the accusative as well as the vocative is like the nominative, and in the plural these cases always end in **-a**.

(8.) The final vowels **i**, **o**, **u** are always long (cf. 46); **a** is short except in the ablative singular of the first declension; **e** is short except in the fifth declension.

NOTE. These (apparent) endings grew from the combination of a nearly or quite uniform set of case-endings with the different kinds of stems. The original endings were of course common to the different members of the Indo-European parent language. The earliest forms which they show in Latin are as follows:—

	<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>	
	M. & F.	N.		M. & F.	N.
Nom. and Voc.	-s	—		-s	-a
Gen.		-os			-sum
Dat.		-i			-bus
Acc.	-m	—		-s	-a
Abl.		-d			-bus
[Loc.]		-i			-is

Most of the development from these endings to the common endings met in literature is easy to trace by the rules of euphonic change given above (58-72). A few points, however, need further mention. The **-s** had dropped from the nominative of the first declension, and the **-d** of the ablative had almost disappeared, when literature began. This **-d** belonged only to **ā-**, **o-**, and **i-** stems. The ablative of consonant and **u-** stems came from the old instrumental case in **e**; that of **ē-** stems was formed later to correspond to **ā-** stems. In the first declension the ending of the genitive singular gave way to a new one, **-āī**, later **-ae**, which is very probably the locative ending transferred to the genitive case. A like transposition of the locative ending took place in the dative and ablative plural of the first and second declensions. **-em** in the accusative singular of consonant stems is probably the Latin representative of an earlier vowel-**m**. Cf. *Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft*, edited by Iwan Müller, vol. ii., Part I., B.: "Lateinische Formenlehre," by J. Stolz, pp. 153, 213 *et alias*.

FIRST DECLENSION.

91. The first declension consists of the nouns whose stems end in *-ā*. The nominative is the same as the stem with the vowel shortened. They are thus declined : —

		<i>mūsa</i> , a muse.	
Stem		<i>mūsā-</i>	
	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
Nom.	<i>mūsa</i> , a muse.		<i>mūsae</i> , muses.
Gen.	<i>mūsae</i> , of a muse.		<i>mūsārum</i> , of muses.
Dat.	<i>mūsae</i> , to a muse.		<i>mūsīs</i> , to muses.
Acc.	<i>mūsam</i> , a muse.		<i>mūsās</i> , muses.
Voc.	<i>mūsa</i> , thou muse.		<i>mūsae</i> , ye muses.
Abl.	<i>mūsā</i> , from, by, with a muse.		<i>mūsīs</i> , from, by, with muses.

GENDER.

92. Nouns of the first declension are regularly feminine.

a. Nouns which denote male beings are masculine ; as, *scriba*, clerk ; *poëta*, poet. So *Hadria*, the Adriatic Sea (properly, the god of that sea). So also various names of rivers (cf. 80, ii.).

CASE-FORMS.

93. The locative of the first declension ends in *-ae* in the singular and in *-īs* (like the ablative) in the plural ; as, *Rōmae*, at Rome ; *Athēnīs*, at Athens.

a. An old form of the genitive singular in *-āī* occurs in the poets ; as, *aulāī*. The same ending is found in the dative, but only as a diphthong.

b. Like the stem vowel the nominative ending in the first declension was originally long, and the nominative is sometimes found with the final *a* long in early poetry ; as, *puellā*.

c. The old genitive singular in *-ās* is used in the word *familia*, when combined with *pater*, *māter*, *fīlius*, or *fīlia*. Thus : *pater familiās*, a householder.

d. The old genitive plural in *-ūm* instead of *-ārum* is retained in compounds of *cola* and *gena*, in many names of nations, and in the words *amphora*, a liquid measure, and *drachma*, a Greek coin.

e. A dative and ablative plural in *-ābus* is sometimes found. This form is usual only in *dea*, goddess, and *fīlia*, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of *deus*, god, and *fīlius*, son.

f. In words like *Bāiae*, the *i* of the stem is dropped before the ending of the dative and ablative plural; as, *Bāis* for *Bāiis*. (Cf. 3, f, and 69, ii., 4.)

For other rare old case forms, cf. Bücheler, *Grundriss der lat. Declination*.

GREEK NOUNS.

NOTE. Nouns taken from the Greek were latinized to a greater or a less degree according to the time when they came into the language. The nouns borrowed early show more Latin forms, while those which came in at the height of the classical period retain more of their Greek aspect. Often a Latin form is the more common in prose, while the Greek form is preferred by the poets.

94. Greek nouns in the first declension end in *-a* or *-ē* feminine, in *-ās* or *-ēs* masculine. The Greek forms occur only in the singular; and in nouns in *-a* they are chiefly confined to the accusative case.

The declension of the singular is as shown below. The plural is like that of pure Latin nouns.

Nom. Ossa	epitomē	tiārās	comētēs	Anchisēs
Gen. Ossae	epitomēs (-ae)	tiārae	comētae	Anchisae
Dat. Ossae	epitomae (-ē)	tiārae	comētae	Anchisae
Acc. Ossam (-an or -ān) *	epitomēn (-am)	tiāram (-ān)	comēten (-am)	Anchisēn (-am)
Voc. Ossa	epitomē	tiārā (-a)	comēta	Anchisa (-ē)
Abl. Ossā	epitomē (-ā)	tiārā	comētā (-ē)	Anchisē (-ā)

SECOND DECLENSION.

95. The second declension consists of the nouns whose stems end in *-o*. The nominative ending is *-us* (*-os*)

* The forms in parentheses are the less common ones.

masculine and a few feminine, -er or -ir * masculine, um- (-om) neuter. The declension is as follows : —

dominus, master.

rēgnum, kingdom.

servos (later servus), slave.

Stem	domino-	servo-	rēgno-
<i>Singular.</i>			
Nom.	dominus	servos (servus)	rēgnum
Gen.	dominī	servī	rēgnī
D. & A.	dominō	servō	rēgnō
Acc.	dominum	servom (servum)	rēgnum
Voc.	domine	serve	rēgnum

Plural.

N. & V.	dominī	servī	rēgna
Gen.	dominōrum	servōrum	rēgnōrum
D. & A.	dominīs	servīs	rēgnīs
Acc.	dominōs	servōs	rēgna

gener, son-in-law.

ager, field.

vir, man.

Stem	genero-	agro-	viro-
<i>Singular.</i>			
N. & V.	gener	ager	vir
Gen.	generī	agrī	virī
D. & A.	generō	agrō	virō
Acc.	generum	agrum	virum

Plural.

N. & V.	generī	agrī	virī
Gen.	generōrum	agrōrum	virōrum
D. & A.	generīs	agrīs	virīs
Acc.	generōs	agrōs	virōs

* The only nouns in -ir are *vir* (man), and (chiefly in late Latin) *lēvir*, husband's brother.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

96. The following nouns are —

(1.) Feminine : —

<i>alvos</i> , belly.	<i>diphthongus</i> , diphthong.
<i>atomus</i> , atom.	<i>humus</i> , ground.
<i>carbasus</i> , flax, sail.	<i>vannus</i> , grain-fan.
<i>colus</i> , distaff.	

Also most names of countries, towns, islands, trees, plants, and gems (cf. 81, ii.), with a few other comparatively rare nouns.

(2.) Neuter : —

pelagus, sea ; *vīrus*, poison ; and generally *volgus*, crowd.

CASE-FORMS.

97. (1.) Stems in *ro-* preceded by a consonant generally form the nominative by dropping the stem vowel *o* and developing a parasitic *e* before the *r* (see 64), as in *ager*. (Cf. paradigm.)

(2.) In the following nouns the *e* belongs to the stem, and is of course retained through all the cases, as in *gener*. (Cf. paradigm.)

<i>adulter</i> , adulterer.	<i>puer</i> , boy.
<i>gener</i> , son-in-law.	<i>socer</i> , father-in-law.
<i>Līber</i> , Bacchus.	<i>vesper</i> , evening.

Also the compounds from *ferō* and *gerō* which end in *-fer* or *-ger* ; as, *Lūcifer*, the morning star (*i. e.*, light-bringer) ; *armiger*, armor-bearer.

(3.) The locative of the second declension ends in *-ī* in the singular, and in *-īs* (like the ablative) in the plural ; as, *Corinthī*, at Corinth ; *Vēīs*, at Veii.

(4.) Nouns in *-ius* and *-ium* formed the genitive singular in *-ī* (not *-iī*) until about 45 B. C. Thus : *gladius*, *gladiī* ; *negōtium*, *negōtī*. In proper names the single *-ī* in the genitive was retained much later.

(5.) The vocative singular of proper names in *-ius* and *-ium*, and of the nouns *fīlius*, son, and *genius*, guardian spirit, drops the *e*. Thus: *Mercurī*, *fīlī*, *genī*. Other nouns in *-ius* are not found in the vocative singular.

a. The accent of these genitives and vocatives is on the penult even though short; as, *Mercúrī*.

(6.) *Deus*, god, is thus declined: —

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
N. and V.	<i>deus</i>	<i>deī, diī, dī</i>
Gen.	<i>deī</i>	<i>deōrum, deūm</i>
Dat. and Abl.	<i>deō</i>	<i>deīs, diīs, dīs</i>
Acc.	<i>deum</i>	<i>deōs</i>

a. The forms *deī*, *deīs* are more common than *diī*, *diīs*, *dī*, *dīs*, until after Cicero's time.

(7.) Nouns denoting money, weight, or measure generally retain the old form *-ūm* (*-ōm*) instead of *-ōrum* in the genitive plural; as, *nummūm*, of coin; *modiūm*, of bushels.

a. Many other such genitives occur in verse; and the following are sometimes found in prose: *deūm*, *duumvirūm*, *fabrūm* (always when used with *praefectus*); also *liberūm* (meaning *children*), and *sociūm* when used of the *Italian* allies.

For other rare old forms, cf. Bücheler's *Grundriss*.

GREEK NOUNS.

98. Greek nouns in the second declension end in *-os*, *-ōs*, or *-us* masculine (or feminine), *-on* neuter. They are thus declined: —

Nom.	<i>Dēlos</i>	<i>Androgeōs</i>	<i>Orpheus</i>	<i>barbiton</i> (lyre)
Dat.	<i>Dēlī</i>	<i>Androgeō (-ī)</i>	<i>Orpheī (-os)</i>	<i>barbitī</i>
Gen.	<i>Dēlō</i>	<i>Androgeō</i>	<i>Orphei (-ō)</i>	<i>barbitō</i>
Acc.	<i>Dēlon</i>	<i>Androgeō</i>	<i>Orphea</i>	<i>barbiton</i>
	(-um)	(-ōn)		
Voc.	<i>Dēle</i>	<i>Androgeōs</i>	<i>Orpheu</i>	<i>barbiton</i>
Abl.	<i>Dēlō</i>	<i>Androgeō</i>	<i>Orpheō</i>	<i>barbitō</i>

a. The plural is like that of pure Latin nouns, except that the nominative sometimes ends in *-oe*; as, *Adelphoe*; and the genitive (especially in titles of books) in *-ōn*; as, *Georgicōn*, of the Georgics.

b. Proper names in *-er* (Greek *-pos*) are generally declined as pure Latin nouns. Thus: *Alexander*, *Antipater*; gen. *Alexandrī*, *Antipatrī*.

c. Isolated forms, corresponding directly to the Greek, are the neuter plurals (nom. and acc.) *pelagē* (of *pelagus*, sea), *cētē* (of *cētus*, whale), and *Tempē*; the nominative *Panthūs* and vocative *Panthū*; the genitive *Menandrū*.

d. *Iēsūs* has accusative *Iēsum*, and in all other cases *Iēsū*.

THIRD DECLENSION.

99. The third declension, unlike the others, includes two * kinds of stems, the *i*-stems and the consonant stems. It has also two *u*-stems, which are treated like consonant stems.

CONSONANT STEMS.

100. Consonant stems can be conveniently studied in the following three groups: —

1. Those which add *s* to form the nominative singular.
2. Those which have no *s* in the nominative singular.
3. Those which were originally *s*-stems.

In all of these groups the nominative sometimes has the stem vowel varied. (See below.)

Nouns Adding *S* in Nominative Singular.

101. The nominative singular is formed by adding *s* in the case of masculine and feminine mute stems, of the two *u*-stems, and of the only stem in *m*.†

* The third declension thus really includes two declensions, but the case-forms for *i*-stems and those for consonant stems fell together to such an extent as the language grew that it is best to combine the two kinds of stems in one declension.

† This is the stem *hiem-*, which besides adding *s* in the nominative develops a parasitic *p*. Thus: *hiemps*, f., winter, gen. *hiemis*.

a. A labial mute (**b** or **p**) remains unchanged before **s**, a palatal (**c** or **g**) unites with **s** to form **x**, a dental (**d** or **t**) disappears before **s**. The two **u**-stems lengthen the stem vowel.

b. Four dental stems also lengthen the stem vowel: *ped*-, nom. *pēs*, m., foot; *abiet*-, nom. *abiēs*, f., fir-tree; *ariet*-, nom. *ariēs*, m., ram; *pariet*-, nom. *pariēs*, m., wall.

c. Mute stems with **i** before the mute usually show **e** instead of **i** in the nominative; as, *milit*-, nom. *mīles*, m., soldier; *remig*-, nom. *remex*, m., oarsman. So also *aucup*-, nom. *auceps*, m., bird-catcher. Exceptions are *calic*-, nom. *calix*, m., cup; *lapid*-, nom. *lapis*, m., stone; and Greek stems in *id*-.

d. The stem *bov*- makes *bōs*, c.,* ox or cow; *niv*- (originally *nigv*-) makes *nix*, f., snow; *coniug*- has a parasitic **n** in the nominative. Thus: *coniunx*, c., spouse, gen. *coniugis*.

102. Such nouns are thus declined: —

	forceps, c., pincers	rēx, m., king	lapis, m., stone	mīles, m., soldier	sūs, c., swine
Stem	forcip-	rēg-	lapid-	milit-	su-

Singular.

N. and V.	forceps	rēx	lapis	mīles	sūs
Gen.	forcipis	rēgis	lapidis	militis	suis
Dat.	forcipī	rēgī	lapidī	militi	suī
Acc.	forcipem	rēgem	lapidem	militem	suem
Abl.	forcipe	rēge	lapide	militē	sue

Plural.

N. Acc. and V.	forcipēs	rēgēs	lapidēs	militēs	suēs
Gen.	forcipum	rēgum	lapidum	militum	suum
Dat. and Abl.	forcipibus	rēgibus	lapidibus	militibus	subus (suibus)

Nouns with No S in Nominative Singular.

103. Stems in **l**-, **n**-, or **r**-, and the few neuters in **t**- (also one in **d**-†), add no **s**, but themselves serve as nominatives, either unchanged or with the following modifications: —

* *I. e.*, common gender.

† Namely, *cord*-, nom. *cor*, heart.

a. *Sal-*, nom. *sāl*, m., salt; *lar-*, nom. *Lār*, m., hearth-god; and the Greek stems *āēr-*, nom. *āēr*, m., air; and *aether-*, nom. *aethēr*, m., upper air, lengthen the stem vowel. The stem *calcār-* shortens the vowel: *calcar*, n., spur.

b. Stems ending in two consonants drop the second (cf. 69 iii.); as, *mell-*, nom. *mel*, n., honey. Two also lengthen the vowel: *lact-*, nom. *lāc*, n., milk; and *farr-*, nom. *fār*, n., spelt.

c. Stems in *ōn-* and those in *din-* or *gin-* drop the *n* and end the nominative in *ō*; as, *leōn-*, nom. *leō*, m., lion; *virgin-*, nom. *virgō*, f., maiden. So also *turbīn-*, nom. *turbō*, m., whirlwind; and *carn-*, nom. *carō*, f., flesh. Cf. *homīn-*, nom. *homō*, m., man.

d. Other stems in *in-* show *en* in the nominative; as, *carmin-*, nom. *carmen*, n., song; *flāmin-*, nom. *flāmen*, m., (a kind of) priest.

e. Stems in *tr-* develop a parasitic *e* in the nominative; as, *patr-*, nom. *pater*, m., father; *mātr-*, nom. *māter*, f., mother. (Cf. also Vowel stems, 108, *b*, and 97, 1.)

f. The stem *capit-* makes *caput*, n., head. Greek neuter stems in *at-* drop the *t*; as, *poēmat-*, nom. *poēma*, n., poem.

104. Such nouns are thus declined: —

	cōnsul, m., consul	leō, m., lion	virgō, f., maiden
Stem	cōnsul-	leōn-	virgin-
<i>Singular.</i>			
N. & V.	cōnsul	leō	virgō
Gen.	cōnsulis	leōnis	virginis
Dat.	cōnsulī	leōnī	virginī
Acc.	cōnsulem	leōnem	virginem
Abl.	cōnsule	leōne	virgine

Plural.

N. Acc. & V.	cōnsulēs	leōnēs	virginēs
Gen.	cōnsulum	leōnum	virginum
Dat. & Abl.	cōnsulibus	leōnibus	virginibus

nōmen, n., name caput, n., head pater, m., father

Stem	nōmin-	capit-	patr-
<i>Singular.</i>			
N. & V.	nōmen	caput	pater
Gen.	nōminis	capitis	patris
Dat.	nōminī	capitī	patri
Acc.	nōmen	caput	patrem
Abl.	nōmine	capite	patre
<i>Plural.</i>			
N. A. & V.	nōmina	capita	patrēs
Gen.	nōminum	capitum	patrum
D. & Ab.	nōminibus	capitibus	patribus

Stems Originally Ending in S.

105. Of the many nouns which originally had *s*-stems, only *vās*, n., vase, gen. *vāsis*, retains the *s* in declension, and this noun passes in the plural into the second declension (see paradigm, 107). In the other nouns *s* becomes *r* in declension, *i. e.*, between two vowels. (Cf. 67.)

106. These nouns show the following forms in the nominative singular:—

a. Some masculine nouns in *-ōs* retain the original form; as, *flōs*, flower, gen. *flōris*; more commonly, however, they have *-or*; as, *amor*, love, gen. *amōris*. A few have both forms; as, *honōs* or *honor*, honor. So the feminine *arbōs* or *arbor*, tree, gen. *arbōris*.

b. Neuter stems in *or-* (orig. *os-*) generally have the nominative in *-us*; as, *corpus*, body, gen. *corporis*. They frequently have the stem vowel weakened to *e* in the oblique cases; as, *opus*, work, gen. *operis*. A few have *-ur* in the nominative; as, *rōbur*, strength, gen. *rōboris*.

c. After the analogy of neuters are formed the masculines *lepus*, hare, gen. *leporis*; *Ligus*, Ligurian, gen. *Ligūris*; and the feminine *Venus*, gen. *Veneris*.

d. The original *s* appears also in the following:—

Stem	Nom.	Stem	Nom.
<i>aer-</i>	<i>aes</i> , n., copper.	<i>mūr-</i>	<i>mūs</i> , c., mouse.
<i>Cerer-</i>	<i>Cerēs</i> , f., Ceres.	<i>pūr-</i>	<i>pūs</i> , n., pus.
<i>crūr-</i>	<i>crūs</i> , n., leg.	<i>rūr-</i>	<i>rūs</i> , n., country.
<i>glūr-</i>	<i>glīs</i> , m., dormouse.	<i>tellūr-</i>	<i>tellūs</i> , f., earth.
<i>iūr-</i>	<i>iūs</i> , n., right.	<i>tūr-</i>	<i>tūs</i> , n., frankincense.
<i>mūr-</i>	<i>mūs</i> , m., male being.		

e. A few masculine stems in *er-* have the nominative in *-is*, either alone or beside a form in *-er*. These are: —

Stem	Nom.
<i>ciner-</i>	<i>cīnis</i> , ashes.
<i>pulver-</i>	<i>pulvis</i> , dust.
<i>vōmer-</i>	{ <i>vōmer</i> , <i>vōmis</i> , } ploughshare.

107. Such nouns are thus declined: —

	<i>flōs</i> , m., flower	<i>honor</i> , m., honor	<i>pulvis</i> , m., dust
Stem	<i>flōr-</i>	<i>honōr-</i>	<i>pulver-</i>
		<i>Singular.</i>	
N. & V.	<i>flōs</i>	<i>honōs</i> } <i>honor</i> }	<i>pulvis</i>
Gen.	<i>flōris</i>	<i>honōris</i>	<i>pulveris</i>
Dat.	<i>flōrī</i>	<i>honōrī</i>	<i>pulverī</i>
Acc.	<i>flōrem</i>	<i>honōrem</i>	<i>pulverem</i>
Abl.	<i>flōre</i>	<i>honōre</i>	<i>pulvere</i>

Plural.

N. Acc. & V.	<i>flōrēs</i>	<i>honōrēs</i>	<i>pulverēs</i>
Gen.	<i>flōrum</i>	<i>honōrum</i>	<i>pulverum</i>
Dat. & Abl.	<i>flōribus</i>	<i>honōribus</i>	<i>pulveribus</i>

	<i>corpus</i> , n., body	<i>opus</i> , n., work	<i>vās</i> , n., vase
Stem	<i>corpor-</i>	<i>oper-</i>	<i>vās-</i>

Singular.

N. Acc. & V.	<i>corpus</i>	<i>opus</i>	<i>vās</i>
Gen.	<i>corporis</i>	<i>operis</i>	<i>vāsis</i>
Dat.	<i>corporī</i>	<i>operī</i>	<i>vāsī</i>
Abl.	<i>corpore</i>	<i>opere</i>	<i>vāse</i>

Plural.

N. Acc. & V.	<i>corpora</i>	<i>opera</i>	<i>vāsa</i>
Gen.	<i>corporum</i>	<i>operum</i>	<i>vāsōrum</i>
Dat. & Abl.	<i>corporibus</i>	<i>operibus</i>	<i>vāsis</i>

I- STEMS.

108. Masculine and feminine i- stems add *s* to form the nominative. Neuters add no *s*, but show *ē* instead of *i* in the nominative. Those in *āli-* and *āri-* drop the *i* and shorten the *ā*.* Thus :

Stem	Nom.
<i>siti-</i>	<i>sitis</i> , f., thirst.
<i>mari-</i>	<i>mare</i> , n., sea.
<i>animālī-</i>	<i>animal</i> , n., living thing.
<i>exemplārī-</i>	<i>exemplar</i> , n., pattern.

a. But a number of nouns, chiefly feminine, form the nominative in *-ēs*. The common ones are as follows:—

<i>aedēs</i> , f., temple (also <i>aedis</i>).	<i>prōlēs</i> , f., offspring.
<i>caedēs</i> , f., bloodshed.	<i>pūbēs</i> , f., youth.
<i>clūdēs</i> , f., disaster.	<i>sēdēs</i> , f., seat.
<i>compāgēs</i> , f., joint (in building).	<i>sordēs</i> , f., dirt.
<i>famēs</i> , f., hunger.	<i>strāgēs</i> , f., carnage.
<i>fēlēs</i> , f., cat.	<i>struēs</i> , f., heap.
<i>lūbēs</i> , f., ruin.	<i>subolēs</i> , f., offspring.
<i>luēs</i> , f., plague.	<i>tābēs</i> , f., wasting.
<i>mōlēs</i> , f., mass.	<i>torquēs</i> , c., necklace.
<i>nūbēs</i> , f., cloud.	<i>vātēs</i> , c., seer.
<i>palumbēs</i> , c., wood-pigeon.	<i>veprēs</i> , m., bramble.

b. A few stems in *bri-* and *tri-* drop the *i* and develop a parasitic *e*. (Cf. 103, *e*, and 97, 1.) Thus:—

Stem	Nom.
<i>imbri-</i>	<i>imber</i> , m., shower.
<i>lintri-</i>	<i>linter</i> , f., boat.

NOTE. There was a tendency on the part of nouns with *i-* stems to pass into consonant stems, and between the nouns with complete *i-* stem forms and those with complete consonant stem forms are found various words whose forms show different stages in the passage from the former to the latter.

* Such nouns were originally neuter adjectives.

109. The following paradigms exhibit the mixing of the consonant stems and i-stems, beginning with a pure i-stem on the left and going on the right to nouns which, retaining the i-stem in the plural, had become consonant stems in the singular: —

	sitis, f., thirst.	mare, n., sea.	turris, f., tower.	imber, m., shower.	hostis, c., enemy.	nubes, *f., cloud.	aetās, f., age.
Stem	siti-	mari-	turri-	imbri-	hosti-	nūb(i)-	aetā(t)i-
N. & V.	sitis	mare	turris	<i>Singular.</i>			
Gen.	sitis	maris	turris	imber	hostis	nūbēs	aetās
Dat.	siti	marī	turri	imbris	hostis	nūbis	aetātis
Acc.	situm	mare	turrim (-em)	imbrī	hostī	nūbī	aetātī
Abl.	siti	marī	turri (-e)	imbrem	hostem	nūbem	aetātem
				imbre (-ī)	hoste	nūbe	aetāte
				<i>Plural.</i>			
N. & V.		maria	turrēs	imbrēs	hostēs	nūbēs	aetātēs
Gen.		marium	turrium	imbrum	hostium	nūbium	aetātium(-um)
D. & A.		maribus	turribus	imbribus	hostibus	nūbibus	aetātibus
Acc.		maria	turris (-ēs)	imbrēs (-īs)	hostēs (-īs)	nūbēs (-īs)	aetātēs (-īs)

* Nouns like *nūbēs* seem to have been originally s-stems, and to have suffered mutilation. Cf. 133, b, footnote.

a. Besides nouns like *aetās*, the nouns which have consonant stems in the singular and i- stems in the plural are chiefly the following monosyllables : —

Nom.	Stem	Gen.
<i>arx</i> , f., citadel	<i>arc(i)-</i>	<i>arcis</i>
<i>dēns</i> , m., tooth	<i>dent(i)-</i>	<i>dentis</i>
<i>dōs</i> , f., dowry	<i>dōt(i)-</i>	<i>dōtis</i>
<i>fōns</i> , m., fountain	<i>font(i)-</i>	<i>fontis</i>
<i>fūr</i> , m., thief	<i>fūr(i)-</i>	<i>fūris</i>
<i>mūs</i> , m., male	<i>mar(i)-</i>	<i>maris</i>
<i>mōns</i> , m., mountain	<i>mont(i)-</i>	<i>montis</i>
<i>nix</i> , f., snow	<i>niv(i)-</i>	<i>nivis</i>
<i>nox</i> , f., night	<i>noct(i)-</i>	<i>noctis</i>
<i>pōns</i> , m., bridge	<i>pont(i)-</i>	<i>pontis</i>
<i>strix</i> , f., screech-owl	<i>strig(i)-</i>	<i>strigis</i>
<i>urbs</i> , f., city	<i>urb(i)-</i>	<i>urbis</i>

PECULIAR NOUNS.

110. Three nouns, *vīs*, force, *os*, bone, and *bōs*, ox or cow, show peculiarities of declension which are best seen when the nouns are given in full. Thus : —

vīs, f., force. *os*, n., bone. *bōs*, c., ox or cow.

Stem	<i>Sing. vī-</i> <i>Plur. viri-</i>	<i>oss(i)-</i>	<i>bov-</i>
<i>Singular.</i>			
Nom. & V.	<i>vis</i>	<i>os</i>	<i>bōs</i>
Gen.	<i>vis (rare)</i>	<i>ossis</i>	<i>bovis</i>
Dat.	—	<i>ossī</i>	<i>bovī</i>
Acc.	<i>vīm</i>	<i>os</i>	<i>bovem</i>
Abl.	<i>vī</i>	<i>osse</i>	<i>bove</i>

Plural.

N., A. & V.	<i>virēs</i>	<i>ossa</i>	<i>bovēs</i>
Gen.	<i>virium</i>	<i>ossium</i>	<i>boum</i>
Dat. & Abl.	<i>viribus</i>	<i>ossibus</i>	<i>bōbus or būbus</i>

111. Other peculiar forms are as follows : —

(1.) *Senex*, m., old person, has a shorter stem in the oblique

cases and in the plural. Thus: gen. *senis*, dat. *senī*, acc. *senem*, etc.

(2.) *Carō*, f., flesh, gen. *carnis*, has genitive plural *carnium*.

(3.) *Iūppiter*, m., Jupiter (Father Jove), has in the oblique cases *Iovis*, *Iovī*, *Iovem*, *Iove*.

(4.) Three nouns have a longer stem in the oblique cases than in the nominative. They are: —

Nom. & Voc.	<i>iter</i> , n., road.	<i>iecur</i> , n., liver.	<i>supellex</i> , f., furniture.
Gen.	<i>itineris</i>	<i>iecinoris</i> or <i>iecoris</i>	<i>supellectilis</i>
Dat.	<i>itinerī</i>	<i>iecinorī</i> or <i>iecorī</i>	<i>supellectilī</i>
	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>

NOTE 1. The following monosyllabic nouns are not used in the genitive plural: *cor*, n., heart; *cōs*, f., whetstone; *fāx*, f., torch; *faex*, f., dregs; *lūx*, f., light; *nex*, f., death; *ōs*, n., mouth; *pāx*, f., peace; *praes*, m., bondsman; *rōs*, n., dew; *sāl*, m., salt; *sōl*, m., sun; *tūs*, n., frankincense; *vas*, m., voucher; *vēr*, n., spring.

NOTE 2. *Iūs*, n., right, and *rūs*, n., country, have in the plural only the nominative and accusative cases.

REMARKS ON CASE-FORMS.

112. The locative ending of the third declension is *-ī* or *-e* for the singular, *-ibus* (as in the ablative) for the plural. Thus: *Karthāginī* or *Karthāgine*, at Carthage; *Sardibus*, at Sardis.

113. The accusative singular ends in *-im* in the following words: —

a. Always in Greek words, as *Daphnis*, and in names of rivers, as *Tiberis*, and in —

<i>būris</i> , plough-handle.	<i>sitis</i> , thirst.
<i>cucumis</i> , cucumber.	<i>tussis</i> , cough.
<i>rāvis</i> , hoarseness.	<i>vīs</i> , force.

Also in adverbs which were once accusatives, like *partim*, *amussim*, etc.

b. Sometimes in —

<i>febris</i> , fever.	<i>turris</i> , tower.
<i>puppis</i> , stern.	<i>secūris</i> , axe.
<i>restis</i> , rope.	<i>sēmentis</i> , a sowing.

And rarely in several other words.

114. The ablative singular ends in *-ī* in the following : —

a. Always in the words which have only *-im* in the accusative, and in *secūris*.

b. In certain adjectives used as nouns : —

aequālis, a contemporary. *gentilis*, a family connection.

annālis, a historical record. *molāris*, a mill-stone.

aquālis, a wash-basin. *primīpīlāris*, a military officer.

cōnsulāris, an ex-consul. *tribūlis*, a fellow tribesman.

c. In neuters, *except* the following : —

baccar, a plant ; *iubar*, a ray of light ; *nectar*, nectar ; and sometimes (in verse), *mare*, sea, and *rēte*, net.

d. Sometimes in the following : —

amnis, river. *fīnis*, end. *ovis*, sheep.

avis, bird. *īgnis*, fire. *pelvis*, basin.

axis, axle. *imber*, shower. *sēmentis*, sowing.

bīlis, bile. *mane*, morning. *sors*, lot.

classis, fleet. *messis*, harvest. *strigilis*, flesh-scaper.

clāvis, key. *nāvis*, ship. *turris*, tower.

febris, fever.

And the following adjectives used as nouns : —

adfīnis, a connection by marriage. *rīvālis*, rival.

bipennis, two-edged axe. *sapiēns*, philosopher.

cānūlis, water-pipe. *trirēmīs*, trireme.

familiāris, friend. *vōcūlis*, vowel.

nātālis, birth-day. *aedīlis*, aedile (rarely).

115. The ablative singular ends in *-ē* in *famēs*, hunger, and in *-e* in *Sōracte* and in most names of towns which end in *-e*, as *Praeneste*.

116. The genitive plural ends in *-um* in the following nouns (though they have *i-* stems) : —

a. Always in —

canis, dog ; *iuvenis*, youth (originally consonant stems).

ambāgēs, riddle ; *volucris*, bird.

b. Sometimes in —

apis, bee.*caedēs*, bloodshed.*clādēs*, disaster.*mēnsis*, month.*sēdēs*, seat.*struēs*, pile.*subolēs*, offspring.*vātēs*, bard.

c. Also in nouns in *-tās*; as, *cīvitās*, gen. plur. *cīvitātūm* or *cīvitātium*; and rarely in names denoting nationality, in *-ās*, *-ātis*, or *-īs*, *-ītis*; as, *Arpīnās*, *Samnīs*.

117. The accusative plural in *-īs* is common with *i*-stems, but *-ēs* is also found in all words.

a. In the nominative plural *-īs* is very rare. An old form in *-eis* also occurs in both accusative and nominative.

NOTE. For other old or rare forms see Bücheler's *Grundriss*.

GENDER.

118. (1.) Nouns with the following endings are MASCULINE: —

-er, *-ēs*, *-or*, *-ōs*, *-ō* (except *-dō*, *-gō*, and abstracts and collectives in *-iō*), also *-n* (except *-men*).

(2.) Nouns with the following endings are FEMININE: — *-ās*, *-ēs*, *-is*, *-ūs*, *-ys*, *-s* preceded by a consonant, *-dō*, *-gō*, and abstracts and collectives in *-iō*.

(3.) Nouns with the following endings are NEUTER: — *-a*, *-e*, *-ī*, *-y*, *-c*, *-l*, *-t*, *-men*, *-ar*, *-ur*, *-ūs*.

119. The most common exceptions to these rules are as follows: —

(1.) Masculine are —

ās, a piece of money.*vas*, bondsman.*amnis*, river.*collis*, hill.*ēnsis*, sword.*īgnis*, fire.*lapis*, stone.*mēnsis*, month.*orbis*, circle.*pānis*, bread.*unguis*, nail.*dēns*, tooth.*fōns*, spring.*mōns*, mountain.*pōns*, bridge.*ariēs*, ram.*pariēs*, wall.*pēs*, foot.*ordō*, order.*sōl*, sun.

(2.) Feminine are —

arbor, tree.*dōs*, dowry.*seges*, crop.*pecus*,* sheep.

(3.) Common are —

bōs, ox or cow.*cūstōs*, guard.*sacerdōs*, priest or

priestess.

torquēs, necklace.*vūtēs*, bard.*anguis*, snake.*canis*, dog.*cinis*, ashes.*cīvis*, citizen.*crīnis*, hair.*fīnis*, end.*fūnis*, rope.*hostis*, enemy.*iūvenis*, youth.*pulvis*, dust.*testis*, witness.*calx*, lime.*calx*, heel.*mūs*, mouse.*sūs*, swine.

(4.) Neuter are —

cadāver, corpse.*papāver*, poppy.*iter*, road.*ūber*, teat.*vēr*, spring.*verber*, scourge.*aequor*, sea.*cor*, heart.*aes*, copper.*fās*, right.*nefās*, wrong.*vās*, vase.*ōs*, mouth.*os*, bone.*īnguen*, groin.*unguen*, ointment.*crūs*, leg.*iūs*, right.*rūs*, country.*tūs*, frankincense.

Less common exceptions are as follows: —

120. Masculine are —

(1.) Greek nouns in *ās* (gen. *-antis*); as, *elephās*, elephant; also, *āxis*, axle; *būris*, plough-handle; *caulis*, stalk; *cucumis*, cucumber; *fascis*, bundle; *follis*, bel-lows; *fūstis*, club; *piscis*, fish; *postis*, post; *torris*, fire-brand; *vectis*, lever; *vermis*, worm; *vōmis*, plough-share.

(2.) *Calix*, cup; *fornix*, arch; *phoenix*, a fabulous bird; *onyx*, a precious stone; *quīncūnx*, *septūnx*, etc.; *auceps*, bird-catcher; *chalybs*, steel; *cliēns*, client; *quadrāns*, *sextāns*, etc.; compounds of *dēns*, except *bidēns*, sheep.

(3.) *comedō*, glutton; *cardō*, hinge; *harpagō*, grap-pling-hook; *sāl*, salt (sometimes neuter in singular); *tur-tur*, turtle dove; *vultur*, vulture; *flāmen*, a kind of priest.

* Priscian quotes it once from Ennius as masculine, and a neuter plural form *pecuda* is found.

(4.) Generally, also, *callis*, path; *cānālis*, water-pipe; *clūnis*, haunch; *corbis*, basket; *sentis*, brier; *grex*, herd; *pūmex*, pumice stone; *senex*, old person; *rudēns*, rope; *tigris* (in prose; always feminine in poetry), tiger.

121. Feminine are *linter*, boat; *merges*, sheaf; *cōs*, whetstone; *eōs*, morning; *carō*, flesh; and Greek nouns in -ō, like *ēchō*, echo.

122. Common are *antistes*, priest; *palumbēs*, wood-pigeon; *cortex*, bark; *ōbex*, barrier; *onyx* (meaning an onyx box); *sardonyx*, a precious stone; *sandŷx*, the color scarlet; *silex*, flint; *forceps*, pincers; *scrobs*, ditch; *serpēns*, serpent; *stirps*, tree trunk.

123. Neuter are Greek nouns in -as (genitive -atis), and in -es; as, *hippomanes*; also, *cicer*, chick-pea; *piper*, pepper; *spinter*, a kind of bracelet; *tūber*, a swelling; *ador*, spelt; *marmor*, marble; *glūten*, glue.

GREEK NOUNS.

124. Greek nouns in the third declension seldom show Greek forms except in the genitive and accusative singular and accusative plural. Examples of their declension are as follows:—

hērōs, m., hero. *lampas*, f., torch. *basis*, f., base.

Singular.

N. & V.	<i>hērōs</i>	<i>lampas</i>	<i>basis</i>
G.	<i>hērōis</i>	<i>lampados</i>	<i>basis</i> (-eos)
D.	<i>hērōi</i>	<i>lampadi</i>	<i>basī</i>
Ac.	<i>hērōa</i>	<i>lampada</i>	<i>basin</i>
Ab.	<i>hērōe</i>	<i>lampade</i>	<i>basī</i>

Plural.

N. & V.	<i>hērōes</i>	<i>lampades</i>	<i>basēs</i>
G.	<i>hērōum</i>	<i>lampadum</i>	<i>basium</i>
D. & Ab.	<i>hērōisin</i>	<i>lampadibus</i>	<i>basibus</i>
Ac.	<i>hērōas</i>	<i>lampadas</i>	<i>basīs</i> (-eis)

tigris, c., tiger. nāis, f., naiad. chelys, f., lyre.

Singular.

N.	tigris	nāis	chelys
G.	tigris (-idos)	nāidos	_____
D.	tigrī	nāidi	_____
Ac.	tigrin (-ida)	nāida	chelyn
V.	tigris	nāis	chely
Ab.	tigrī (-ide)	nāide	_____

Plural.

N. & V.	tigres	nāides	_____
G.	tigrium	nāidum	_____
D. & Ab.	tigribus	nāidibus	_____
Ac.	tigrīs (-idas)	nāidas	_____

Proper Names.

Examples of the declension of Greek proper names are as follows : —

	m.	f.	m.
N.	Sōcratēs	Dīdō	Simois
G.	Sōcratis (-ī)	Dīdūs (-ōnis)	Simoentis
D.	Sōcratī	Dīdō (-ōnī)	Simoenti
Ac.	Sōcratem (-ēn)	Dīdō (-ōnem)	Simoenta
V.	Sōcratēs (-ē)	Dīdō	Simois
Ab.	Sōcrate	Dīdō (-ōne)	Simoente

	m.	m.
N.	Capys	Daphnis
G.	Capys	Daphnidis
D.	Capyi	Daphnidi
Ac.	Capyn	Daphnim (-in)
V.	Capy	Daphni
Ab.	Capye	Daphnī

Special Forms.

125. (1.) Like *Simois* are declined stems in *ant-*, *ent-*, *ont-*, *ünt-*; as, *adamās*, gen. *adamantis*; *Xenophōn*, gen. *Xenophontis*; *Trapezūs*, gen. *Trapezūntis*, etc.

(2.) But some in *ont-* are thoroughly latinized and declined like *Dracō*, gen. *Dracōnis*. So also *Agamemnōn* or *Agamemnō*, but with short *o* in the stem, *Agamemnonis*, etc.

(3.) Stems in *ant-* have the Latin form in the nominative sometimes as, *Atlāns*, *elephāns*; and also have *ā* in the vocative as, *Atlā*.

(4.) Neuters in *-a* have a dative and ablative plural in *-is* after the fashion of the second declension; as, *poēma*, dat. and abl. *poēmatīs*.

FOURTH DECLENSION

126. The fourth declension consists of nouns whose stems end in *u-*. The nominative singular ends in *-us* masc. (and fem.), *-ū* neuter. Thus: —

fructus, m., fruit. *cornū*, m., horn.

Stem	<i>fructu-</i>	<i>cornu-</i>
<i>Singular.</i>		
Nom. & Voc.	<i>fructus</i>	<i>cornū</i>
Gen.	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornūs</i>
Dat.	<i>fructuī (-ū)</i>	<i>cornū</i>
Acc.	<i>fructum</i>	<i>cornū</i>
Abl.	<i>fructū</i>	<i>cornū</i>

Plural.

Nom. & Voc.	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornua</i>
Gen.	<i>fructuum</i>	<i>cornuum</i>
Dat.	<i>fructibus</i>	<i>cornibus</i>
Acc.	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornua</i>
Abl.	<i>fructibus</i>	<i>cornibus</i>

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

127. The following nouns are feminine : —

<i>acus</i> , needle.	<i>manus</i> , hand.
<i>colus</i> , distaff.	<i>porticus</i> , gallery.
<i>domus</i> , house.	<i>Quīnquātrūs</i> (pl.), Feast of
<i>fīcus</i> , fig.	Minerva.
<i>Īdūs</i> , pl. <i>Īdes</i> .	<i>tribus</i> , tribe.

Also a few by signification ; and rarely *arcus*, bow ; *penus*, provisions ; *specus*, cave.

a. *Secus*, sex, is neuter.

CASE-FORMS.

128. (1.) Old genitives in -uos and -uis are found in some words ; as, *senātuos* ; *frūctuis*.

(2.) A genitive in ī-, after the analogy of the second declension, is found in *senātī*, and in early Latin in a few other words.

(3.) A few datives in ū- occur.

(4.) A contracted genitive plural in -ūm is also found.

129. The following nouns retain the u- of the stem (not weakened to i-)* in the dative and ablative plural.

<i>artus</i> , limb,	dat. and abl. pl. <i>artubus</i> .
<i>partus</i> , birth,	“ <i>partubus</i> .
<i>portus</i> , harbor,	“ (<i>portubus</i>).
<i>tribus</i> , tribe,	“ <i>tribubus</i> .
<i>verū</i> , spit,	“ (<i>verubus</i>).

a. All but *partus* have also the form in -ibus, in classical times. With *portus* and *verū* that is the commoner form.

b. Words of two syllables in -cus have more commonly -ubus in the ablative ; as, *lacus*, *lacubus*.

130. *Domus*, house, has two stems, *domu-* and *domo-*,

* Cf. 59, and 90.

and is declined as follows (the commoner form in each case is put first) : —

domus, f., house.

Stem domu- and domo-

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. & Voc.	domus	domūs
Gen.	domūs, domī	domuum, domōrum
Dat.	domuī, domō	domibus
Acc.	domum	domōs, domūs
Abl.	domō (domū)	domibus

a. Domī is used only as locative, except in Plautus. A locative *domuī* also occurs.

131. Most names of plants, and *colus*, distaff, have also forms of the second declension; *penus*, provisions, has forms in both the second and third declensions.*

FIFTH DECLENSION.

132. The fifth declension consists of the nouns whose stems end in ē-. The nominative singular ends in -ēs. All the nouns are feminine except *diēs* (common in the singular, masculine in the plural) and *merīdiēs* (masculine). They are thus declined : —

rēs, thing.

Stem rē-

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. & Voc.	rēs	rēs
Gen.	rēī	rērum
Dat.	rēī	rēbus
Acc.	rem	rēs
Abl.	rē	rēbus

* The fourth declension seems to have been an offshoot from the third. Cf. genitive forms like *nōminus*, from *nōmen*, and *senātuos*, from *senātus*. Later, confusion arose between the fourth and the second declensions through their similarity in the nominative singular. Hence forms like *senātī*, *domōrum*.

	diēs, day.	Stem diē-
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. & Voc.	diēs	diēs
Gen.	diēī	diērum
Dat.	diēī	diēbus
Acc.	diem	diēs
Abl.	diē	diēbus

a. *Diēs* is as a rule feminine only when it denotes duration of time or a fixed day.

CASE-FORMS.

133. (1.) Old forms of both genitive and dative singular in *-ē* and *-ī*, and of genitive only in *-ēs*, occur, but rarely; as, *fidē*, *dīn*, *rabiēs*. *Plēbī* is common as a genitive.

(2.) Only *rēs* and *diēs* are used in full in the plural. The nominative, accusative, and vocative plural are found in the following: —

<i>aciēs</i> , line of battle.	<i>faciēs</i> , face.	<i>seriēs</i> , series.
<i>effigiēs</i> , effigy.	<i>glaciēs</i> , ice.	<i>speciēs</i> , shape, form.
<i>eluviēs</i> , overflowing.	<i>prōgeniēs</i> , offspring.	<i>spēs</i> , hope.

(3.) The stem vowel is shortened in the genitive and dative singular when a consonant precedes it; as, *rēī*, from *rēs*, thing; *fidēī*, from *fidēs*, faith; *spēī*, from *spēs*, hope.

a. All the nouns of the fifth declension but four — *fidēs*, *plēbēs*,* *rēs*, and *spēs* — end in *-iēs*, and all nouns in *-iēs* are of this declension, except five of the third declension — *abiēs*, fir; *ariēs*, battering ram; *pariēs*, partition wall; *quiēs* and *requiēs*, rest.

b. The nouns in *-iēs* of the fifth declension (except *diēs* and *merīdiēs*) generally have, especially in the genitive and dative singular, and in the plural, corresponding forms in the first declension. Thus, *māteria*, gen. *māteriae*, beside *māteriēs*, gen. *māteriēī*, etc.†

* Less common than the third declension form *plēbs*.

† These nouns in *-iēs* seem to have been developed from the stems in *ā* originally. (See *Handb. der Altert.*, vol. ii., B., p. 203, §5.) The other nouns of the fifth declension — except perhaps *rēs* — were probably originally *a*-stems of the third declension, like *nūbēs*. (Cf. 108, *a*, 109.)

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

134. There are four classes of irregular nouns, as follows:—

(1.) HETEROGENEOUS nouns (*heterogenea*), or such as have forms of different *genders*.

(2.) HETEROCLITES (*heteroclita*), or nouns which have forms of different *declensions*.

(3.) DEFECTIVE nouns (*dēfectīva*), or such as lack some of their parts.

(4.) REDUNDANT nouns (*abundantia*), or such as have more forms than the usual number.

135. The commonest heterogeneous nouns are the following:—

(1.) Masculine in singular, neuter in plural:—

<i>Avernus</i> , a certain lake,	plural <i>Averna</i> .
<i>Tartarus</i> , the lower regions,	“ <i>Tartara</i> .
<i>iocus</i> , jest,	“ <i>iocī</i> and <i>ioca</i> .
<i>locus</i> , place,	“ { <i>locī</i> , passages in books; topics.
	“ { <i>loca</i> , places.
<i>sibilus</i> , whistling,	“ <i>sībīlī</i> and <i>sībīla</i> .

(2.) Feminine in singular, neuter in plural:—

<i>carbasus</i> , sail,	plural <i>carbasa</i> .
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(3.) Neuter in singular, masculine in plural:—

<i>caelum</i> , heaven,	plural <i>caelī</i> .
<i>frēnum</i> , bridle,	“ <i>frēnī</i> and <i>frēna</i> .
<i>rāstrum</i> , rake,	“ <i>rāstrī</i> , and more rarely <i>rāstra</i> .

(4.) Neuter in singular, feminine in plural:—

<i>epulum</i> , feast,	plural <i>epulae</i> .
<i>balneum</i> , bath,	“ <i>balneae</i> and <i>balnea</i> .
<i>nūndinum</i> , market day,	“ <i>nūndīnae</i> .

136. Examples of heteroclites are as follows : —

iugerum, n., acre. vās, n., vessel.

Singular.

Nom. & Acc.	iugerum	vās
Gen.	iugerī	vāsis,
Dat.	iugerō	vāsī
Abl.	iugerō and (iugere)	vāse

Plural.

Nom. & Acc.	iugera	vāsa
Gen.	iugerum	vāsōrum
Dat. & Abl.	iugribus and iugerīs	vāsīs

a. Vesper, evening, has also *vespera*, acc. *vesperum*, more rarely *vesperam*, abl. *vespere* and *vesperā*, and as ablative of time (see 424) generally the locative from *vesperī*. It has no plural.

b. Requiēs, rest, has acc. *requiem* oftener than *requiētem*; abl. *requiē*.

NOTE. The student will remember other examples of heteroclite forms already met under the different declensions.

137. The commonest defective nouns are the following : —

(1.) Indeclinable (*indēclīnābilia*) are —

<i>fās</i> , right.	<i>īnstar</i> , image.
<i>nefās</i> , wrong.	<i>māne</i> , morning.
<i>nihil</i> , nothing.	<i>pondō</i> , weight.

a. The first four are used only in the nominative and accusative, but *nihil* has a collateral form *nihilum*, *nihilī*, *nihilō*; *māne* is used in the nominative, accusative, and ablative. (Cf. 114, *d.*)

(2.) *Frūgis*, of fruit, and *diciōnis*, of sway, have no nominative.

(3.) *Nēmō*, no one, has no vocative and no plural; and in classical Latin no genitive and no ablative; these cases are supplied by the pronominal adjective *nūllus*.

(4.) The following are used only as given : —

help (<i>sing.</i>), power (<i>plur.</i>).	turn.	impetus, attack.	fors, chance.
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Singular.

Nom.	_____	_____	impetus	fors
Gen.	opis	vicis	_____	_____
Dat.	_____	_____	impetū	_____
Acc.	opem	vicem	impetum	_____
Abl.	ope	vice	impetū	forte

Plural.

Nom. & Acc.	opēs	vicēs	impetūs	_____
Gen.	opum	_____	_____	_____
Dat. & Abl.	opibus	vicibus	_____	_____

a. Sponte, will, accord, is used only in the ablative singular. So also various nouns of the fourth declension, as *admonitū*, *iūssū*, *arbitrātū*, *nātū*, etc.

See also under the third declension, **110**, and fifth declension, **133**.

138. (1.) Proper names, and some other nouns, from their meaning naturally have no plural. The following nouns also lack the plural: —

<i>aethēr</i> , the sky.	<i>luēs</i> , plague.
<i>caenum</i> , mud.	<i>māne</i> , morning.
<i>ebur</i> , ivory.	<i>pūbēs</i> , youth.
<i>gelū</i> , frost.	<i>specimen</i> , example.
<i>humus</i> , the ground.	<i>vēr</i> , spring.
<i>iubar</i> , radiance.	<i>vesper</i> , evening.
<i>lāc</i> , milk.	<i>vīrus</i> , poison.
<i>lētum</i> , death.	<i>volgus</i> , crowd.
<i>līmus</i> , mud.	

And some others which are less common.

(2.) Abstract nouns are used in the plural as a rule only to denote instances or occasions of the quality, action, etc. See **437, 3**.

139. (1.) Names of festivals and games, and several

names of places and books, have no singular ; as, *Bacchānālia*, *Kalendae*, *Būcolica*, *Athēnae*.

(2.) Other common nouns which lack the singular are the following : —

<i>ācta</i> (2 *), records.	<i>induviae</i> , clothes.
<i>altāria</i> (3), altar.	<i>īnsidiae</i> , ambushade.
<i>angūstiae</i> , narrow pass.	<i>līberī</i> , children.
<i>argūtiae</i> , witticisms.	<i>māiōrēs</i> (3), ancestors.
<i>arma</i> (2), weapons.	<i>mānēs</i> (3), shades of the dead.
<i>bīgae</i> , a two-horse chariot.	<i>manubiae</i> , spoils of war.
<i>cānī</i> , gray hairs.	<i>minae</i> , threats.
<i>cūnābula</i> (2), } cradle.	<i>moenia</i> (3), walls.
<i>cūnae</i> , }	<i>mūnia</i> ‡ (2), official duties.
<i>dēliciae</i> , darling.	<i>nūgae</i> , trifles.
<i>dīvītie</i> , riches.	<i>nūptiae</i> , a marriage.
<i>excubiae</i> , watch.	<i>penātēs</i> (3), household gods.
<i>exsequiae</i> , funeral rites.	<i>phalerae</i> , trappings.
<i>exta</i> (2), entrails.	<i>praecordia</i> (2), diaphragm.
<i>exuviae</i> , spoils.	<i>quadrīgae</i> , team of four horses.
<i>fūstī</i> , calendar.	<i>reliquiae</i> , remains.
<i>faucēs</i> (3), jaws.	<i>scālae</i> , ladder.
<i>fidēs</i> (3), lyre.	<i>tenebrae</i> , darkness.
<i>grātes</i> † (3), thanks.	<i>virgulta</i> (2), bushes.
<i>indutiae</i> , a truce.	

140. The following nouns usually differ in meaning in the different numbers : —

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>aedēs</i> , } -is, f., temple,	<i>aedēs</i> , -ium, house.
<i>aedis</i> , }	
<i>aqua</i> , f., water,	<i>aquae</i> , a watering place.
<i>auxilium</i> , n., aid,	<i>auxilia</i> , auxiliary troops.
<i>carcer</i> , m., prison,	<i>carcerēs</i> , racecourse barriers.
<i>castrum</i> , n., fort,	<i>castra</i> , a camp.

* The number annexed shows the declension, wherever doubt might arise.

† Used only in the nominative and accusative.

‡ Classical only in nominative and accusative.

<i>cōdicillus</i> , m., bit of wood,	<i>cōdicillī</i> , tablets.
<i>comitium</i> , n., place of assembly,	<i>comitia</i> , an assembly for election.
<i>cōpia</i> , f., plenty,	<i>cōpiae</i> , troops, forces.
<i>facultās</i> , f., ability,	<i>facultātēs</i> , property.
<i>fīnis</i> , m. and f., end,	<i>fīnēs</i> , bounds, territory.
<i>fortūna</i> , f., fortune,	<i>fortūnae</i> , possessions.
<i>grātia</i> , f., favor,	<i>grātia</i> , thanks.
<i>impedimentum</i> , n., a hindrance,	<i>impedimenta</i> , baggage.
<i>littera</i> , f., letter of the alphabet,	<i>litterae</i> , epistle or literature.
<i>lūdus</i> , m., pastime,	<i>lūdī</i> , public games.
<i>nātālis</i> , m., birthday,	<i>nātālēs</i> , birth, lineage.
<i>opera</i> , f., work, task,	<i>operae</i> , workmen.
<i>opis</i> (gen.), f., help,	<i>opēs</i> , -um, means, resources.
<i>pars</i> , f., part,	<i>partēs</i> , a part played, or (often)* political party.
<i>plaga</i> , f., region, tract,	<i>plagae</i> , nets, toils.
<i>rōstrum</i> , n., beak, prow,	<i>rōstra</i> , the Rostra.†
<i>sāl</i> , m. and n., salt,	<i>salēs</i> , witticisms.

NOTE. Examples of redundant nouns are seen in many of the heterogeneous nouns and heteroclites.

ADJECTIVES.

141. Adjectives are declined like nouns, but there are no u-stems ‡ or ē-stems among them. Therefore only the first three declensions are used.

142. Adjectives are best divided into two classes for declension : —

I. Adjectives with o-stems in masculine and neuter, and ā-stems in feminine.

* The singular is occasionally so used.

† A part of the Roman Forum which was adorned with the prows of some war vessels.

‡ Unless the rare compounds of *manus* be counted an exception. An accusative plural in -ūs is found of *anguimanūs*, once masculine, once feminine, in Lucretius.

II. Adjectives with i- stems or with consonant stems.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSION.

143. Adjectives of the first class are said to be of the First and Second Declension. They are declined like nouns of these declensions. Thus: —

bonus, good.

	M.	F.	N.
Stem	bono-	bonā-	bono-
<i>Singular.</i>			
Nom.	bonus	bona	bonum
Gen.	bonī	bonae	bonī
Dat.	bonō	bonae	bonō
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum
Voc.	bone	bona	bonum
Abl.	bonō	bonā	bonō

Plural.

N. & V.	bonī	bonae	bona
Gen.	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
D. & A.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
Acc.	bonōs	bonās	bona

tener, tender.

		tenerā-	tenero-
<i>Singular.</i>			
N. & V.	tener	tenera	tenerum
Gen.	tenerī	tenerae	tenerī
Dat.	tenerō	tenerae	tenerō
Acc.	tenerum	teneram	tenerum
Abl.	tenerō	tenerā	tenerō

Plural.

N. & V.	tenerī	tenerae	tenera
Gen.	tenerōrum	tenerārum	tenerōrum
D. & A.	tenerīs	tenerīs	tenerīs
Acc.	tenerōs	tenerās	tenera

piger, lazy.

Stem	pigro-	pigrā-	pigro-
<i>Singular.</i>			
N. & V.	piger	pigra	pigrum
Gen.	pigrī	pigrae	pigrī
Dat.	pigrō	pigrae	pigrō
Acc.	pigrum	pigram	pigrum
Abl.	pigrō	pigrā	pigrō

Plural.

N. & V.	pigrī	pigrae	pigrā
Gen.	pigrōrum	pigrārum	pigrōrum
D. & A.	pigrīs	pigrīs	pigrīs
Acc.	pigrōs	pigrās	pigra

a. Adjectives in -ius have the full forms in the genitive and vocative singular; as, *rēgī* and *rēgie*, from *rēgius*.

144. In *tener* and the few adjectives declined like it the *e* before the *r* belongs to the stem, as in the case of analogous nouns. (Cf. 97, 2.)

a. These adjectives are —

<i>asper</i> , rough.	<i>miser</i> , wretched.
<i>exter</i> , foreign.	<i>prōsper</i> , prosperous.
<i>gībber</i> , crook-backed.	<i>satur</i> , full (satiated).
<i>lacer</i> , torn.	<i>sēmi-fer</i> , half-human.
<i>liber</i> , free.	

And the compounds of *gerō* and *ferō*; as, *lāniger*, *lētifer*, etc.

NOTE. *Satur* is the only adjective of the second declension having any vowel but *e* before the final *r*.

145. Six adjectives in -us and three in -er form the genitive singular in -īus and the dative singular in -ī for all genders. These are —

<i>alius</i> , another.	<i>tōtus</i> , whole.	<i>alter</i> , <i>altera</i> , <i>alterum</i> , the other.
<i>nūllus</i> , none.	<i>ūllus</i> , any.	<i>uter</i> , <i>utra</i> , <i>utrum</i> , which of two.
<i>sōlus</i> , alone.	<i>ūnus</i> , one.	<i>neuter</i> , <i>neutra</i> , <i>neutrum</i> , neither.

146. They are thus declined in the singular: —

ūnus, one.

	M.	F.	N.
Stem	<i>ūno-</i>	<i>ūnā-</i>	<i>ūno-</i>
Nom.	<i>ūnus</i>	<i>ūna</i>	<i>ūnum</i>
Gen.	<i>ūnīus</i>	<i>ūnīus</i>	<i>ūnīus</i>
Dat.	<i>ūnī</i>	<i>ūnī</i>	<i>ūnī</i>
Acc.	<i>ūnum</i>	<i>ūnam</i>	<i>ūnum</i>
Voc.	<i>ūne</i>	<i>ūna</i>	<i>ūnum</i>
Abl.	<i>ūnō</i>	<i>ūnā</i>	<i>ūnō</i>

alius, another.

Stem	<i>alio-</i>	<i>aliā-</i>	<i>alio-</i>
Nom.	<i>alius</i>	<i>alia</i>	<i>aliud</i>
Gen.	<i>aliūs</i>	<i>aliūs</i>	<i>aliūs</i>
Dat.	<i>aliī</i>	<i>aliī</i>	<i>aliī</i>
Acc.	<i>alium</i>	<i>aliam</i>	<i>aliud</i>
Voc.	_____	_____	_____
Abl.	<i>aliō</i>	<i>aliā</i>	<i>aliō</i>

uter, which (of two).

Stem	<i>utro-</i>	<i>utrā-</i>	<i>utro-</i>
Nom.	<i>uter</i>	<i>utra</i>	<i>utrum</i>
Gen.	<i>utriūs</i>	<i>utriūs</i>	<i>utriūs</i>
Dat.	<i>utrī</i>	<i>utrī</i>	<i>utrī</i>
Acc.	<i>utrum</i>	<i>utram</i>	<i>utrum</i>
Voc.	_____	_____	_____
Abl.	<i>utrō</i>	<i>utrā</i>	<i>utrō</i>

The plural is regular.

a. So are declined *uterque*, each; *alteruter*, one or the other.

CASE-FORMS.

147. (1.) The quantity of the *i* of the genitive singular is common in poetry.

(2.) The genitive *aliūs* is rare, *alteriūs* being used instead, except in the possessive sense, which is supplied by the adjective *aliēnus*, belonging to another.

(3.) The regular forms of the genitive and dative singular are occasionally found, especially in early Latin ; as, *nūllae* (gen.), (Plaut., *Mil.*, iii., 1, 207) ; *nūllō* (Cæs., *B. G.*, vi., 13).

THIRD DECLENSION.

148. The adjectives of Class II. are called Adjectives of the Third Declension. They are declined exactly like nouns of the third declension, except that the forms properly belonging to *i*-stems are much more common than in nouns. There is also much less variety in the endings of the nominative singular.

149. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes, according as they have —

(1.) Three forms in the nominative singular for the three genders.

(2.) Two forms in the nominative singular, one masculine and feminine, the other neuter.

(3.) One form for all three genders.

150. Class (1) includes only certain stems in *ri*-. The *i* is dropped in the nominative singular masculine ; a parasitic *e* is then developed before the *r* (as in the noun stems under 103, *e*, and 108, *b*). The feminine nominative singular ends in *-is*, the neuter in *-e*, as in the corresponding nouns. Such adjectives are thus declined : —

ācer, sharp.

Stem *ācri*-

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom. & Voc.	<i>ācer</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācre</i>
Gen.	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācris</i>
Dat. & Abl.	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>
Acc.	<i>ācrem</i>	<i>ācrem</i>	<i>ācre</i>

Plural.

Nom. & Voc.	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācria</i>
Gen.	<i>ācrium</i>	<i>ācrium</i>	<i>ācrium</i>
Dat. & Abl.	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>
Acc.	<i>ācrēs (-īs)</i>	<i>ācrēs (-īs)</i>	<i>ācria</i>

151. The only adjectives of this class are —

<i>ācer.</i>	<i>celeber.</i>	<i>pedester.</i>	<i>silvester.</i>
<i>alacer.</i>	<i>equester.</i>	<i>puter.</i>	<i>terrester.</i>
<i>campester.</i>	<i>palūster.</i>	<i>salūber.</i>	<i>volucer.</i>
<i>celer.*</i>			

And the names of the months *September, Octōber, November, December.*

a. These adjectives sometimes have the masculine singular in -is like the feminine. This is especially the case with *puter, salūber, and terrester.*

b. On the other hand, the form in -er is sometimes found as feminine in early and late Latin.

c. *Volucer* has *volucrum* in the genitive plural.

152. Class (2) includes all other i- stems, and the comparatives (consonant stems). They are thus declined :—

	mītis, mild.		mīti <u>or</u> , milder.	
Stem	mīti-		mīti <u>or</u> -	
<i>Singular.</i>				
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N. & V.	mītis	mīte	mīti <u>or</u>	mīti <u>us</u>
Gen.	mītis	mītis	mīti <u>or</u> is	mīti <u>or</u> is
Dat.	mītī	mītī	mīti <u>or</u> ī	mīti <u>or</u> ī
Acc.	mītem	mīte	mīti <u>or</u> em	mīti <u>us</u>
Abl.	mītī	mītī	mīti <u>or</u> e (-ī)	mīti <u>or</u> e (-ī)
<i>Plural.</i>				
N. & V.	mītēs	mītia	mīti <u>or</u> ēs	mīti <u>or</u> a
Gen.	mītium	mītium	mīti <u>or</u> um	mīti <u>or</u> um
D. & A.	mītibus	mītibus	mīti <u>or</u> ibus	mīti <u>or</u> ibus
Acc.	mītēs (-īs)	mītia	mīti <u>or</u> ēs (-īs)	mīti <u>or</u> a

153. *Plūs*, more, has in the singular only the forms of the neuter gender. The plural differs from that of other

* In this adjective the e in the final syllable belongs to the stem, and is retained throughout.

comparatives in having -ium in the gen. plur. Certain forms are wanting. The declension is as follows:—

plūs, more. Stem plūr-

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
	N.	M. & F.	N.
Nom.	plūs	plūrēs	plūra (<i>rarely</i> plūria)
Gen.	plūris	plūrium	plūrium
Dat.	———	plūribus	plūribus
Acc.	plūs	plūrēs (-īs)	plūra
Voc.	———		———
Abl.	plūre (<i>rare</i>)	plūribus	plūribus

So also the plural compound *complūrēs*, a great many.

154. Class (3) includes all consonant stems except the comparatives. They are thus declined:—

	fēlīx, happy.		praesēns, present.	
Stem	fēlic-		praesent-	
	<i>Singular.</i>			
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N., V.	fēlīx	fēlīx	praesēns	praesēns
G.	fēlicis	fēlicis	praesentis	praesentis
D.	fēlicī	fēlicī	praesentī	praesentī
Ac.	fēlicem	fēlīx	praesentem	praesēns
Ab.	fēlicī (-e)	fēlicī (-e)	praesente (-ī)	praesente (ī)

Plural.

N., V.	fēlicēs	fēlicia	praesentēs	praesentia
G.	fēlicium	fēlicium	praesentium	praesentium
D., A.	fēlicibus	fēlicibus	praesentibus	praesentibus
Ac.	fēlicēs(-īs)	fēlicia	praesentēs(-īs)	praesentia

vetus, old. Stem veter-

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N. & V.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera
G.	veteris	veteris	veterum	veterum
D.	veterī	veterī	veteribus	veteribus
Ac.	veterem	vetus	veterēs (-īs)	vetera
Ab.	vetere (-ī)	vetere (-ī)	veteribus	veteribus



CASE-FORMS.

155. (1.) Adjectives, unlike nouns, tend to the forms of the *i*-declension, as is shown particularly by the ablative singular, and the genitive and accusative plural.

(2.) The only adjectives which commonly have *-e* in the ablative singular are the comparatives and —

<i>compos</i> , sharing in.	<i>praeceps</i> , headlong.
<i>dēsidis</i> (genitive), indolent.	<i>pūber</i> , youthful.
<i>dīves</i> , rich.	<i>superstes</i> , surviving.
<i>pauper</i> , poor.	<i>supplex</i> , suppliant.
<i>particeps</i> , sharing.	<i>vetus</i> , old.*

a. But most adjectives of one ending (Class 3, above) have *-e*, when used as nouns. So also most present participles, and participial adjectives like *praesēns*, when used as participles.

(3.) Only a few adjectives have *-um* in the genitive plural. The most common are *dīves*, *compos*, *inops* (poor), *praepes* (swift of flight), *supplex*, and compounds of nouns which have *-um*. Most of these adjectives lack the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural altogether.

a. *Locuplēs* has *locuplētum* and *locuplētium*.

(4.) Almost all adjectives can have the accusative plural in *-īs* as well as *-ēs*, but *-īs* is less common in the adjectives with consonant stems than in those with vowel stems.

(5.) Some adjectives are indeclinable, as *frūgī* (really a dative of [*frūx*]) worthy, and *nēquam*, worthless; *potis*, *pote*, possible, is sometimes used as indeclinable, sometimes regularly declined.

(6.) A few adjectives are used only in one or two forms, as: —

<i>expēs</i> , without hope,	only nominative.
<i>exlēx</i> , lawless,	nominative and accusative.
<i>māctus</i> , honored,	nominative and vocative.

* To these may be added the ablative *pernocte*, which is the only oblique case used of *pernox*, lasting all night.

necesse } necessary, nominative and accusative.
necessum }

pernox, lasting all night, nominative and ablative.

Hebes, dull; *teres*, round; and a few others, lack the genitive plural. *Dēsīdis*, indolent, lacks also the nominative singular.

(7.) A few adjectives (heteroclites) have besides the third declension form another in the second declension. The most common are —

auxiliāris and *auxiliārius* (less common), auxiliary.

biugis (rare) and *biugus*, yoked two together.

exanimis (rare in plural) and *exanimus*, lifeless.

hilaris and *hilarus*, cheerful.

imbecillis (rare) and *imbecillus*, weak.

inermis and *inermus* (very rare), unarmed.

opulēns and *opulentus*, rich.

prōclīvis and *prōclīvos* (less common), sloping.

singulāris and *singulārius*, singular.

violēns and *violentus*, violent.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES (*Numerālia*).

156. Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes: (1.) CARDINALS (*cardinālia*); (2.) ORDINALS (*ordinālia*); (3.) DISTRIBUTIVES (*distribūtiva*).

157. (1.) Cardinals simply denote the number of things meant and answer the question *quot* (i. e., how many)? as, *ūnus*, one; *vīgintī*, twenty.

(2.) Ordinals denote order or rank and answer the question *quotus* (i. e., how many-eth)? as, *prīmus*, first; *quīntus*, fifth.

(3.) Distributives denote an equal distribution among a given number of persons or things, and answer the question *quotēnī* (i. e., how many apiece)? as, *bīnī*, two apiece.

(4.) For convenience the NUMERAL ADVERBS are given with the adjectives. They answer the question *quotiēns* (i. e., how many times)? as, *semel*, once; *decīēs*, ten times.

158. The numeral adjectives (cardinals, ordinals, and distributives), and also the adverbs, from one to twenty,

CARDINALS.		ORDINALS.
1 ūnus, -a, -um	<i>one</i>	prīmus
2 duo, -æ, -o	<i>two</i>	secundus
3 trēs, -ia	<i>three</i>	tertius
4 quattuor	<i>four</i>	quārtus
5 quīnque	<i>five</i>	quīntus
6 sex	<i>six</i>	sextus
7 septem	<i>seven</i>	septimus
8 octō	<i>eight</i>	octāvus
9 novem	<i>nine</i>	nōnus
10 decem	<i>ten</i>	decimus
11 ūndecim	<i>eleven</i>	ūndecimus
12 duodecim	<i>twelve</i>	duodecim
13 tredecim	<i>thirteen</i>	tertius decimus
14 quattuordecim	<i>fourteen</i>	quārtus decimus
15 quīndecim	<i>fifteen</i>	quīntus decimus
16 sēdecim	<i>sixteen</i>	sextus decimus
17 septendecim	<i>seventeen</i>	septimus decimus
18 duodēvīgintī	<i>eighteen</i>	duodēvīcēsīmus
19 ūndēvīgintī	<i>nineteen</i>	ūndēvīcēsīmus
20 vīgintī	<i>twenty</i>	{ vīcēsīmus } { vīgēsīmus }
21 vīgintī ūnus ūnus et vīgintī	{ <i>twenty-one</i> }	{ vīcēsīmus prīmus } { ūnus et vīgēsīmus }
22 vīgintī duo duō et vīgintī	{ <i>twenty-two</i> }	{ vīcēsīmus alter } { alter et vīcēsīmus } { duo et vīcēsīmus }
28 duodētrīgintā	<i>twenty-eight</i>	duodētrīcēsīmus
29 ūndētrīgintā vīgintī novem	{ <i>twenty-nine</i> }	ūndētrīcēsīmus

with examples of the higher numbers, are given in the following table, together with the Roman signs for them.

DISTRIBUTIVES.	ADVERBS.	ROMAN SIGNS.
singulī	semel	I.
bīnī	bis	II.
ternī	ter	III.
quaternī	quater	IIII or IV.
quīnī	quīnquiēs	V.
sēnī	sexiēs	VI.
septēnī	septiēs	VII.
octōnī	octiēs	VIII.
novēnī	noviēs	VIIII or IX.
dēnī	deciēs	X.
ūndēnī	ūndeciēs	XI.
duodēnī	duodeciēs	XII.
ternī dēnī	ter deciēs	XIII.
quaternī dēnī	quater deciēs	XIIII or XIV.
quīnī dēnī	{ quīnquiēs deciēs } { quīndeciēs }	XV.
sēnī dēnī	{ sexiēs deciēs } { sēdeciēs }	XVI.
septēnī dēnī	septiēs deciēs	XVII.
{ duodēvīcēnī } { octōnī dēnī }	octiēs deciēs	XVIII.
{ ūndēvīcēnī } { novēnī dēnī }	noviēs deciēs	XVIIII or XIX.
vīcēnī	vīciēs	XX.
vīcēnī singulī	{ vīciēs semel } { semel et vīciēs }	XXI.
vīcēnī bīnī	{ vīciēs bis } { bis et vīciēs }	XXII.
duodētrīcēnī	duodētrīciēs	XXVIII.
ūndētrīcēnī	ūndētrīciēs	XXVIIII or XXIX.

CARDINALS.		ORDINALS.	
30	trīgintā	<i>thirty</i>	{ trīcēsīmus } trīgēsīmus }
40	quadrāgintā	<i>forty</i>	quadrāgēsīmus
50	quīnquāgintā	<i>fifty</i>	quīnquāgēsīmus
60	sexāgintā	<i>sixty</i>	sexāgēsīmus
70	septuāgintā	<i>seventy</i>	septuāgēsīmus
80	octōgintā	<i>eighty</i>	octōgēsīmus
90	nōnāgintā	<i>ninety</i>	nōnāgēsīmus
	ūndēcentum		
99	(nōnāgintā novem)	<i>ninety-nine</i>	ūndēcentēsīmus
100	centum	<i>one hundred</i>	centēsīmus
101	centum et ūnus	<i>hundred and</i>	{ centēsīmus et ūnus
	centum ūnus	<i>one</i>	{ centēsīmus ūnus
102	centum et duo	<i>hundred and</i>	{ centēsīmus et alter
	centum duo	<i>two</i>	{ centēsīmus alter
200	ducentī, -ae, -a	<i>two hundred</i>	ducentēsīmus
300	trecentī, -ae, -a	<i>three hundred</i>	trecentēsīmus
400	quadringentī, -ae, -a	<i>four hundred</i>	quadringentēsīmus
500	quīngentī, -ae, -a	<i>five hundred</i>	quīngentēsīmus
600	sēscentī, -ae, -a	<i>six hundred</i>	sēscentēsīmus
700	septingentī, -ae, -a	<i>seven hundred</i>	septingentēsīmus
800	octingentī, -ae, -a	<i>eight hundred</i>	octingentēsīmus
900	nōngentī, -ae, -a	<i>nine hundred</i>	nōngentēsīmus
1,000	mille	<i>one thousand</i>	millēsīmus
2,000	duo mīlia	<i>two thousand</i>	bis millēsīmus
100,000	centum mīlia	<i>one hundred</i>	
		<i>thousand</i>	centiēs millēsīmus
1,000,000	deciēs centēna (or centum) mīlia	<i>one million</i>	deciēs centiēs mil- lēsimus
2,000,000	vīciēs centēna (or centum) mīlia	<i>two million</i>	vīciēs centiēs mil- lēsimus
3,000,000	trīciēs centum mīlia	<i>three million</i>	trīciēs centiēs mil- lēsimus

DISTRIBUTIVES.

ADVERBS.

ROMAN SIGNS.

trīcēnī	trīciēs	XXX.
quadrāgēnī	quadrāgiēs	XXXX or XL.
quīnquāgēnī	quīnquāgiēs	L.
sexāgēnī	sexāgiēs	LX.
septuāgēnī	septuāgiēs	LXX.
octōgēnī	octōgiēs	LXXX.
nōnāgēnī	nōnāgiēs	LXXXX or XC.
ūndēcentēnī	ūndēcentiēs	IC.
centēnī	centiēs	C.
centēnī singulī	{ centiēs et semel } { centiēs semel }	CI.
centēnī bīnī	{ centiēs et bis } { centiēs bis }	CII.
ducēnī	ducentiēs	CC.
trecēnī	trecentiēs	CCC.
quadrīngēnī	quadrīngentiēs	CCCC or CD.
quīngēnī	quīngentiēs	D or IĊ.
sēscentēnī	sēscentiēs	DC or IĊC.
septīngēnī	septīngentiēs	DCC or IĊCC.
octīngēnī	octīngentiēs	DCCC or IĊCCC.
nōngēnī	nōngentiēs	DCCCC or IĊCCCC.
singula mīlia	milliēs	M or CIĊ.
bīna mīlia	bis milliēs	MM or CIĊCIĊ.
centēna mīlia	centiēs miliēs	CCCIĊĊĊ.
decīēs centēna mīlia	decīēs centiēs miliēs	CCCCIĊĊĊĊ.
vīciēs centēna mīlia	vīciēs centiēs miliēs	CCCCIĊĊĊĊCCCCIĊĊĊĊ.
trīciēs centēna mīlia	trīciēs centiēs miliēs	CCCCIĊĊĊĊCCCCIĊĊĊĊCCCCIĊĊĊĊ.

159. The cardinals from *quattuor* to *centum*, also *mīlle*, are indeclinable. The cardinals for hundreds, and the distributives, are declined like the plural of *bonus*. The ordinals are declined like *bonus* in both numbers. *Ūnus*, *duo*, *trēs*, and *mīlia* (pl.) are also declined.

160. *Ūnus* has been declined in 146. *Trēs* and *mīlia* are declined like the plural of regular adjectives of the third declension. *Duo* is thus declined:—

	M.	F.	N.
N. & V.	duo	duae	duo
G.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
D. & Ab.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
Ac.	duōs or duo	duās	duo

a. The shorter form of the genitive, *duūm*, is used especially in compounds like *duūmvirī*, and when joined with *mīlium*.

b. Like *duo* is declined *ambō*, both, except that the final o is long. They are remnants of the dual number. (See 86, a.)

161. The plural of *ūnus* is used with nouns which have no singular or a different meaning in the singular; as, *ūnae nūptiae*, one wedding; *ūna castra*, one camp. To denote more than one with such nouns the distributives* are used; as, *bīna castra*, two camps.

a. The plural of *ūnus* is also used with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; as, *ūna vestīmenta*, one suit of clothes; and in the meaning “alone” or “the same;” as, *ūnī Ubī*, the Ubii alone; *ūnīs mōribus vīvere*, to live according to the same habits (as some one else).

b. The numbers from twelve to nineteen are sometimes expressed by two numbers, the greater of which usually precedes with *et*; as, *decem et trēs*, etc.; or without *et*; as, *decem novem*.

c. From twenty to one hundred the smaller number with *et* is put first, or the larger number without *et*; as, *ūnus et vīgintī* or *vīgintī ūnus*. Ordinals, however, omit *et* when the smaller number precedes and sometimes take it when the larger pre-

* *Trīni* is used for *ternī* in such cases.

cedes ; as, *tertius decimus*, and *decimus tertius* or *decimus et tertius*. The adverbs may also take *et* when the larger number precedes ; as, *vīciēs et ter* as well as *ter et vīciēs* and *vīciēs ter*.

d. Instead of *prīmus* and *secundus*, *prior* and *alter* are used when only two are spoken of. *Alter* is otherwise often used for *secundus* ; and, in the compound numbers, *ūnus* and *alter* are often used for *prīmus* and *secundus* ; as, *ūnus et vīcēsīmus*, *alter et trīgēsīmus*.

e. Sixty-eight, sixty-nine, and ninety-eight, are expressed by addition only ; the other eights and nines generally by subtraction only, except that twenty-eight, twenty-nine, and thirty-nine, as well as some of the distributives and adverbs, have both forms. Among ordinals seventy-eight, seventy-nine, eighty-eight, and eighty-nine have only the forms by addition.

f. Above one hundred the larger number precedes with or without *et* ; as, *centum et ūnus* or *centum unus*. *Et* is never used more than once, and then after the first number ; as, *trecentī et sexāgintā sex*. Numeral adverbs are to be *added* together when the larger precedes, but *multiplied* together when the smaller precedes. Thus, while *centiēs deciēs* means a hundred and ten times, *deciēs centiēs* means ten times a hundred times, *i. e.*, a thousand times.

g. *Mille* is generally used as an adjective, but in the nominative and accusative it also occurs as a noun ; *mīlia* is a noun, and may be used with a genitive. Thus : *mille hominēs* and *duo mīlia hominum*.

h. Thousands are expressed by prefixing the cardinal numbers to *mīlia*, millions by further prefixing a numeral adverb. Thus : *decem mīlia* = 10,000.

ducentā mīlia = 200,000.

trīciēs centum mīlia = 3,000,000 (*i. e.*, thirty times 100,000).

i. The year and the hour are expressed by ordinals. Thus : *hōrā septimā*, at the seventh hour ; *annus quīngentēsīmus trīcēsīmus prīmus*, the year five hundred and thirty-one.

k. Fractions are expressed by ordinals with *pars*, a part. Thus, $\frac{1}{3}$ = *tertia pars*. One half is generally, however, expressed

by *dīmidia pars*, or *dīmidium* and a genitive. Also, fractions whose numerator is one less than the denominator are expressed by cardinals with *partēs*. Thus: $\frac{2}{3}$ = *duae partēs*, $\frac{3}{4}$ = *trēs partēs*, etc.

NOTE. For various derivative adjectives expressing numerical relations see 286.

162. (1.) The Romans represented numbers by letters; as, I = 1, V = 5, X = 10.

NOTE. In several cases these letters grew out of early forms discarded from the alphabet as we have it. Thus, the old aspirates, C , D , V , were used for 100, 1000, and 50 respectively, and developed into C, D, and L. Then five hundred (half one thousand) was denoted by D. For these were then substituted C, M, L, D; but for M and D, CIO and IO are often written.

(2.) When a letter is repeated, the number is equal to the value of the letter multiplied by the number of times it occurs. Thus, II = 2×1 , or 2; XXX = 10×3 , or 30; CCCC = 100×4 , or 400. V and L are not thus repeated.

(3.) When a letter of smaller value is placed before one of larger value, its value is subtracted from the larger value; placed after, it is added to the larger value; as:—

IV	four,	V	five,	VI	six.
IX	nine,	X	ten,	XI	eleven.
XL	forty,	L	fifty,	LX	sixty.
XC	ninety,	C	hundred,	CX	hundred and ten.

a. Annexing O to IO multiplies by ten. Thus:—

$$\text{IO} = 500; \text{IOO} = 5,000; \text{IOOO} = 50,000.$$

b. Prefixing C and annexing O to CIO also multiplies by ten. Thus:—

$$\text{CIO} = 1000; \text{CCIOO} = 10,000; \text{CCCIOOO} = 100,000.$$

c. Hundreds of thousands are represented by repeating CCCIOOO. Thus:—

$$\text{CCCIOOOCCCIOOOCCCIOOO} = 300,000.$$

d. Sometimes thousands are expressed by a straight line over the numeral letters. Thus:—

$$\overline{\text{X}} = 10,000; \overline{\text{XL}} = 40,000.$$

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES (*Comparātiō*).

163. (1.) The COMPARISON of an adjective is the change of its form to express its quality in different degrees.

(2.) There are three degrees of comparison, the POSITIVE (*gradus positivus*), the COMPARATIVE (*gradus comparativus*), and the SUPERLATIVE (*gradus superlativus*).

164. (1.) The POSITIVE simply denotes a quality, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, *altus*, high; *mītis*, mild.

(2.) The COMPARATIVE denotes that a quality exists in one of two instances to a greater degree than in the other; as, *altior*, higher; *mītior*, milder.

(3.) The SUPERLATIVE denotes that a quality exists in one of several (or all possible) instances to a greater degree than in any other; as, *altissimus*, highest; *mītissimus*, mildest.

a. The comparative is also used elliptically where we use "too" or "rather;" as, *vīvit liberius*, he lives too freely or rather freely.

b. The superlative often indicates a high degree of a quality without direct comparison with other objects; as, *amīcus cāris-simus*, a very dear friend.

c. The superlative with *quam* denotes that the quality exists in the highest possible degree; as, *quam māximus*, as great as possible.

d. Degrees of a quality less than the positive may be denoted by *minus*, less, and *minimē*, least, prefixed to the positive, as in English.

165. The comparative is formed by adding -ior (m. and f.), -ius (n.), to the stem of an adjective; in the case of the vowel stems the stem vowel is dropped. The superlative is formed by adding in the same way -issimus, -issima, -issimum. Thus: —

Positive	Stem	Comparative	Superlative
altus	alto-	altior	altissimus
mītis	mīti-	mīti ^{or}	mīti ^{ssimus}
fēlix	fēlic-	fēlici ^{or}	fēlici ^{ssimus}

Irregular Comparison.

166. Adjectives in -er form the comparative regularly, but add -rimus to the positive to form the superlative. Thus:—

ācer	ācri-	ācri ^{or}	ācerri ^{mus}
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a. So *vetus* has as superlative *veterrimus*.

167. Six adjectives in -lis form their superlative by adding -limus to the stem without the stem vowel. Thus:—

facilis, easy	facili ^{or}	facilli ^{mus}
difficilis, hard	difficili ^{or}	difficilli ^{mus}
gracilis, slender	gracili ^{or}	gracilli ^{mus}
humilis, low	humili ^{or}	humilli ^{mus}
similis, like	simili ^{or}	similli ^{mus}
dissimilis, unlike	dissimili ^{or}	dissimilli ^{mus}

a. *Imbecillus* (-is) has also sometimes *imbecillimus*.

168. (1.) Five adjectives in -ficus (cf. *faciō*) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in -ficēns. Thus:—

beneficus, kind	beneficenti ^{or}	beneficenti ^{ssimus}
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a. So *honōrificus*, honorable, *māgnificus*, splendid, *mūnificus*, liberal, and *maleficus*, hurtful, except that *maleficus* has no comparative.

(2.) So adjectives in -dīcēns (from *dīcō*) and -volēns (from *volō*), though compared regularly, have more commonly a positive form in -dīcus and -volus. Thus:—

maledicus (maledī-		
cēns), slanderous	maledīcenti ^{or}	maledīcenti ^{ssimus}
benevolus (benevo-		
lēns), well-wishing	benevolenti ^{or}	benevolenti ^{ssimus}

169. The following adjectives show various irregularities of comparison : —

bonus, good	melior	optimus
malus, bad	pēior	pessimus
māgnus, great	māior	māximus
parvus, small	minor	minimus
multus, much	plūs *	plūrimus
dexter, right, skillful	dexterior	dextimus
nēquam, worthless	nēquior	nēquissimus
frūgi, worthy	frūgālior	frūgālissimus

NOTE. The superlative suffix **mo-** seems to have been the earliest. This was then combined with the suffix **to-**, **so-** (see 255), making **-tumus**, **-sumus** (**-timus**, **-simus**), which are found assimilated as **-limus**, **-rimus**. (See above, 166, 167). The common ending **-issimus** either grew from adding **-simus** to comparatives, or was formed in some way after the pattern of the earlier ending **-mus**. See Iwan Müller, *Handbuch der Altertumswiss.*, ii, B., p. 220.

Defective Comparison.

170. (1.) The following adjectives are formed from stems of prepositions, and are seldom or never used in the positive : —

cis, citrā	[citer]	citerior, hither	citimus
dē		dēterior, worse	dēterrimus
in, intrā		interior, inner	intimus
prae, prō		prior, former	prīmus
prope		propior, nearer	proximus
ūltrā	[ūlter]	ūltior, farther	ūltimus

(2.) Four others are used, in many forms of the positives, though not classical in the nominative singular masculine; namely: —

ex, extrā	[exterus] (exter)	exterior, outer	{ extrēmus extimus
infrā	[īferus] (īfer)	īnferior, inner	{ īnfimus īmus
post	[posterus]	posterior, hinder	{ postrēmus postumus
super, suprā	[superus]	superior, upper	{ suprēmus summus

* Only neuter in singular. (See 153.)

(3.) The following two have no positive : —

<i>ōcior</i> , swifter	<i>ōcissimus</i>
<i>potior</i> , preferable	<i>potissimus</i>

171. The following adjectives have no comparative : —

<i>bellus</i> , fine.	<i>invītus</i> , unwilling.
<i>caesius</i> , bluish gray.	<i>novos</i> , new.
<i>falsus</i> , false.	<i>pius</i> , filial.
<i>fīdus</i> , faithful.	<i>sacer</i> , sacred.
<i>inclutus</i> , renowned.	<i>vāfer</i> , crafty.
<i>invictus</i> , invincible.	<i>vetus</i> , old.

172. (1.) The following have no superlative : —

<i>adulēscēns</i> , young.	<i>prōnus</i> , bending forward.
<i>agrestis</i> , rustic.	<i>propīnquus</i> , near.
<i>alacer</i> , lively.	<i>salūtāris</i> , salutary.
<i>caecus</i> , blind.	<i>satur</i> , full.
<i>diūturnus</i> , lasting.	<i>sēgnis</i> , slow.
<i>exīlis</i> , thin.	<i>silvestris</i> , woody.
<i>īnfīnītus</i> , unlimited.	<i>sinister</i> , left.
<i>ingēns</i> , great.	<i>supīnus</i> , lying on the back.
<i>ieiūnus</i> , fasting.	<i>surdus</i> , deaf.
<i>longīnquus</i> , distant.	<i>tempestīvos</i> , seasonable.
<i>opīmus</i> , rich.	<i>teres</i> , round.
<i>prōclīvis</i> , sloping.	<i>vīcīnus</i> , neighboring.

With many in *-ālis*, *-īlis*, *-ilis*, and *-bilis*, and a few other less common adjectives.

(2.) *Iuvenis*, young, compar. *iūnior*, and *senex*, old, compar. *senior*, have the superlative supplied by *minimus nātū* and *māximus nātū*, respectively.

173. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs *magis*, more, and *māximē*, most, as in English. Thus: *idōneus*, fit, *magis idōneus*, *māximē idōneus*.

a. This method of comparison is common with adjectives ending in *-icus*, *-idus*-, *-ulus*, *-undus*, *-imus*, *-īnus*, *-ōrus*, *-īvos*, *-us* pure (except *-uus*), and some others.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

174. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the first and second declension generally by substituting *ē* for the stem vowel; from adjectives of the third declension, and occasionally from the others, by adding *-ter* to the stem, before which *ā* and *o* are weakened to *i*. Thus: *dūrus*, *dūrē*; *ācer*, *ācriter*; *fīrmus*, *fīrmiter*.*

a. The final *-e* is short in *bene*, well; *male*, ill; *īnferne*, below; *superne*, above; and *saepe*, often. (Cf. 46, *a*, 2.)

b. Stems in *t*-retain, of course, only one *t* in the adverb; as, *prūdens*, *prūdentē*; *sollers*, *sollerter*.

Audāx has *audācter*, and less commonly *audāciter*.

c. *Facilis*, easy, has *facile*†; *difficilis*, hard, *difficulter*; and *nēquam*, worthless, *nēquiter*.

175. Only the adverbs thus formed from adjectives are as a rule compared. The comparative is the neuter accusative singular of the comparative of the adjective; the superlative is the superlative of the adjective with *ē* substituted for the stem vowel. If the adjective is irregular the adverb shows similar irregularity. Thus:—

<i>dūrē</i> , hard	<i>dūrius</i>	<i>dūrissimē</i>
<i>ācriter</i> , sharply	<i>ācrius</i>	<i>ācerrimē</i>
<i>audācter</i> , boldly	<i>audācius</i>	<i>audācissimē</i>

<i>So also male</i> , ill	<i>pēius</i>	<i>pessimē</i>
<i>parvē</i> , little	<i>minus</i>	<i>minimē</i>
<i>apertē</i> , openly	<i>magis apertē</i>	<i>māximē apertē</i> , etc.

176. A few adverbs thus compared have no adjectives in use. Thus:—

<i>diū</i> , long	<i>diūtius</i>	<i>diūtissimē</i>
<i>saepe</i> , often	<i>saepius</i>	<i>saepissimē</i>

* These adjectives of the second declension generally also have adverbs in *-ē*; as, *fīrmē*; but *alius* and *violentus* have only *aliter* and *violenter*.

† Really neuter accusative of the adjective. (Cf. 557, *a*, note.)

a. Two slightly irregular forms are —

bene, well (from *bonus*) **melius** optimē
 — **magis** (comp.), more (from *māgnus*) **maximē**

NOTE. Other adverbs are not compared, and will be treated later.
 (See 187, 292, 293, and 557.)

PRONOUNS.

177. Pronouns include the following classes: —

(1.) PERSONALS (*prōnōmina persōnālia*): as, *egō*, I; *tū*, thou; including the REFLEXIVE (*reflexivum*), *suī*, of himself, etc.

(2.) DEMONSTRATIVES (*dēmōnstrātiva*): as, *is*, he, that; *hic*, this.

(3.) INTENSIVES (*intēnsīva*): as, *ipse*, self; *īdem*, the same.

(4.) RELATIVES (*relātiva*): as, *quī*, who.

(5.) INTERROGATIVES (*interrogātiva*): as, *quis*, who?

(6.) INDEFINITES (*indēfīnīta*): as, *aliquis*, some one or other; *quīdam*, some (particular) one.

(7.) POSSESSIVES (*possessīva*): as, *meus*, my; *cūius*, whose?

(8.) PATRIALS (*patriālia*): as, *nostrās*, of our country.

PERSONALS.

178. The personal pronouns are thus declined: —

Singular.

Nom.	<i>egō</i> , I.	<i>tū</i> , thou, you.
Gen.	<i>meī</i> , of me.	<i>tuī</i> , of thee, you.
Dat.	<i>mihi</i> , to me.	<i>tibi</i> , to thee, you.
Acc.	<i>mē</i> , me.	<i>tē</i> , thee, you.
Voc.	—	<i>tū</i> , thou, you.
Abl.	<i>mē</i> , with or by me.	<i>tē</i> , with or by thee, you.

Plural.

Nom.	nōs, we.	vōs, ye, you.
Gen.	nostrum,* or nostrī, of us.	vestrum, or vestrī, of you.
Dat.	nōbīs, to us.	vōbīs, to you.
Acc.	nōs, us.	vōs, you.
Voc.	—	vōs, ye, you.
Abl.	nōbīs, with or by us.	vōbīs, with or by you.

179. The reflexive pronoun is the same in both numbers and in all genders. Thus:—

Nom.	—
Gen.	suī, of himself, herself, itself, themselves.
Dat.	sibī, to himself, etc.
Acc.	sē (sēsē), himself, etc.
Voc.	—
Abl.	sē (sēsē), with or by himself, etc.

a. The personal pronoun of the third person when not reflexive is supplied by the demonstratives, *is*, *ea*, *id*, and (more emphatic) *hic*, *haec*, *hōc*, or *ille*, *illa*, *illud*. (See 180, below.)

b. All the forms of the personal and reflexive pronouns, except *tū* and the plural genitives, sometimes add the suffix *-met* for greater emphasis. Thus: *egōmet*, *vōsmet*, *sēmet*.

c. *Tū* has an emphatic form *tūte*, and in old Latin *tētē* is used as more emphatic for *tē*.

d. *Mī* is old and poetic for *mihī*. *Mēpte* and *mēd* for *mē*, *tēd* for *tē*, *mis* for *meī*, and *tis* for *tuī*, occur in the comic poets.

NOTE. The personal and reflexive pronouns, with the intensive *ipse*, are the only pronouns in the strict sense (*i. e.*, words used *instead of nouns*). The possessives and patrials are really adjectives, and the others are used as adjectives as well as pronouns.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

180. The demonstrative pronouns are thus declined:—

* *Nostrum* and *vestrum* are mostly confined to the partitive use (see Syntax, 354); *nostrī* and *vestrī* are used for other relations.

is, he, that.

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	is	ea	id
Gen.	ēius	ēius	ēius
Dat.	eī	eī	eī
Acc.	eum	eam	id
Abl.	eō	eā	eō

Plural.

Nom.	eī (iī)	eae	ea
Gen.	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
D. & A.	eīs (iīs)	eīs (iīs)	eīs (iīs)
Acc.	eōs	eās	ea

hīc, this.

Singular.

Nom.	hīc	haec	hōc
Gen.	hūius	hūius	hūius
Dat.	huic	huic	huic
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc

Plural.

Nom.	hī	hae	haec
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
D. & A.	hīs	hīs	hīs
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec

iste, this, that.

Singular.

Nom.	iste	ista	istud
Gen.	istius	istius	istius
Dat.	istī	istī	istī
Acc.	istum	istam	istud
Abl.	istō	istā	istō

Plural.

Nom.	istī	istae	ista
Gen.	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
D. & A.	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc.	istōs	istās	ista

ille, that.

Singular.

Nom.	ille	illa	illud
Gen.	illīus	illīus	illīus
Dat.	illī	illī	illī
Acc.	illum	illam	illud
Abl.	illō	illā	illō

Plural.

Nom.	illī	illae	illa
Gen.	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
D. & A.	illīs	illīs	illīs
Acc.	illōs	illās	illa

a. The old form of *ille* was *ollus*, and some cases from that form occur. Genitives and datives after the analogy of the regular forms in the first and second declensions are also found; as, *illae* for *illīus* and *illī*, *eae* for *eī*, *hae* for *huic*, etc. *Iibus*, *ibus*, occur for *eīs*; and, as fem., *eābus*. In early Latin are found as nominative plural, *eeis*, *ieis*, *eis*, *ī*, *heis*, *hīs*, *heisce*, *hīsce*.

b. The interjection *ecce*, lo! is compounded with *ille*, *iste*, and *is* in colloquial language; producing *eccillud*, *eccistam*, *ecca*, *eccum*, *eccōs*, etc.

c. An intensive suffix *-ce* is added to various forms of the demonstratives, producing forms like *hūiusce*, *hance*, *hōrunce*, *illāce*, *istōsce*, *iisce*.

d. When the interrogative *ne* is attached we have forms like *hīcine*, *haecine*, *illaecine*, etc.

e. Sometimes the *e* from *-ce* is dropped, producing from *iste* the following forms: —

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. <i>istīc</i>	<i>istaec</i>	<i>istīc or istūc</i>	—	<i>istaec</i>	—
Ac. <i>istunc</i>	<i>istanc</i>	<i>istōc or istūc</i>	—	—	<i>istaec</i>
Ab. <i>istōc</i>	<i>istāc</i>	<i>istōc</i>			

Similar forms occur for *ille* ; and *hōrunc*, *hārunc* from *hīc*.

f. The genitive *modī* is combined with the genitive of the demonstratives to indicate *of this* or *that kind*. Thus: *hūiusmodī* or *hūiuscemodī*, of this kind ; *ēiusmodī*, of such a kind, that kind, etc.

NOTE. It will be seen that *ille* and *iste* are alike in their declensions, that *hīc* differs from them only in having the *c* of the suffix *-ce* in certain forms, and that *is* differs only in the nominative singular masculine and neuter, and the accusative singular neuter.

Uses of the Demonstratives.

181. (1.) *Hīc*, this, is used to denote that which is near the speaker in thought, space, or time, or in a written or spoken sentence, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person.

(2.) *Ille*, that, is used to denote that which is far from the speaker, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the third person.

(3.) *Iste*, this, that, denotes that which is too far from the speaker for *hīc* and too near for *ille*, often marking that which is near, or, which concerns, the person addressed. It is therefore sometimes called the demonstrative of the second person. It frequently refers to a point under discussion between two persons, or to an opponent in argument, especially in law matters, and therefore sometimes implies contempt.

(4.) When *hīc* and *ille* are used to refer to two things in the same passage, *hīc* more commonly refers to the thing last mentioned, and *ille* to the one first mentioned ; but if the one first mentioned is more important (*i. e.*, nearer the *thought* of the speaker), *hīc* refers to that, and *ille* refers to the other.

(5.) The following examples will make these distinctions clearer : —

Diūtius in hāc vitā esse nōn possum, I cannot stay longer in this life.

Haec nostra studia ; ista tua studia, these (are) our pursuits, those your pursuits.

Egō enim istūc ipsum vereor nē malum sit, nōn dicō carēre sēnsū sed carendum esse, for I am afraid that this very thing is an evil ; I do not mean the being without sensation itself but the necessity of being so (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 12, 26).

a. *Q. Catulus, nōn antīquō illō mōre, sed hōc nostrō ērudītus*, Quintus Catulus trained not in that old fashioned style, but in this of ours.

Ignāvia corpus hebetat, labor fīrmat ; illa mātūrat senectūtem, hīc longam adūlēscentiam reddit, inactivity dulls the physical forces, work strengthens them ; the one hastens old age, the other prolongs youth.

Melior est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria ; haec in tuā, illa in deōrum manū est, certain peace is better than victory hoped for ; the peace is in your hands, the victory in the hands of the gods.

For the special uses of the demonstratives see Syntax, 450.

INTENSIVES.

182. The intensive pronouns are thus declined : —

ipse, self.

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
N. & V.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
Gen.	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō

Plural.

N. & V.	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
D. & A.	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa

īdem, the same.

Singular.

N. & V.	<i>īdem</i>	<i>eadem</i>	<i>idem</i>
Gen.	<i>ēiusdem</i>	<i>ēiusdem</i>	<i>ēiusdem</i>
Dat.	<i>eīdem</i>	<i>eīdem</i>	<i>eīdem</i>
Acc.	<i>eundem</i>	<i>eandem</i>	<i>idem</i>
Abl.	<i>eōdem</i>	<i>eādem</i>	<i>eōdem</i>

Plural.

N. & V.	<i>eīdem (iīdem)</i>	<i>eaedem</i>	<i>eadem</i>
Gen.	<i>eōrundem</i>	<i>eārundem</i>	<i>eōrundem</i>
D. & A.	<i>eīsdem</i> <i>(iīsdem)</i>	<i>eīsdem</i> <i>(iīsdem)</i>	<i>eīsdem</i> <i>(iīsdem)</i>
Acc.	<i>eōsdem</i>	<i>eāsdem</i>	<i>eadem</i>

a. Īdem and *īdem* occur as nominative plural masculine, and other rare forms are occasionally met. See Buecheler's *Grundriss*.

NOTE. It will be seen that *ipse* is declined like *iste* and *ille* except in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in having a vocative. *Īdem* is formed from *is* with the demonstrative suffix *-dem*.

RELATIVES, INTERROGATIVES, AND INDEFINITES.

183. The relative *quī*, who, the interrogative *quis* (*quī*), who, and the indefinite *quis* (*quī*), any one, are formed from the same stem, and most of their forms are the same. The indefinite *quis* occurs chiefly with the particles *sī*, *nisi*, *nē*, *num*; otherwise the compound *aliquis* takes its place.

184. The relative *quī*, the interrogative *quis*, and the indefinite *aliquis* are thus declined: —

quī, who.

quis, who?

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	<i>quī</i>	<i>quæ</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quis (quī)</i>	<i>quæ</i>	<i>quid (quod)</i>
Gen.	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>
Dat.	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>
Acc.	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quid (quod)</i>
Abl.	<i>quō (quī)</i>	<i>quā (quī)</i>	<i>quō (quī)</i>	<i>quō (quī)</i>	<i>quā (quī)</i>	<i>quō (quī)</i>

Plural.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quī	quæ	quæ
Gen.	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
D. & A.	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quōs	quās	quæ

a. The indefinite *quis* is declined just like the interrogative.

aliquis, any, some.

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	<i>aliquis</i> (<i>aliquī</i>)	<i>aliqua</i>	<i>aliquid</i> (<i>aliquod</i>)
Gen.	<i>alicūius</i>	<i>alicūius</i>	<i>alicūius</i>
Dat.	<i>alicui</i>	<i>alicui</i>	<i>alicui</i>
Acc.	<i>aliquem</i>	<i>aliquam</i>	<i>aliquid</i> (<i>aliquod</i>)
Abl.	<i>aliquō</i>	<i>aliquā</i>	<i>aliquō</i>

Plural.

Nom.	<i>aliquī</i>	<i>aliquæ</i>	<i>aliqua</i>
Gen.	<i>aliquōrum</i>	<i>aliquārum</i>	<i>aliquōrum</i>
D. & A.	<i>aliquibus</i>	<i>aliquibus</i>	<i>aliquibus</i>
Acc.	<i>aliquōs</i>	<i>aliquās</i>	<i>aliqua</i>

b. In the interrogative and indefinite pronouns the forms *quis*, *quid*, *aliquis*, *aliquid*, are used substantively, the forms *quī*, *quod*, *aliquī*, *aliquod*, adjectively.

c. The ablative form *quī* is also occasionally found as a plural. Its chief use is as an ablative of manner (see 410), meaning "how?" or combined with *cum*; as, *quīcum*, with whom.

d. Old forms for the dative and ablative plural are *queis* and *quīs*.

e. *Quis* is sometimes found as a feminine in the comic writers, and even as a neuter. So the compounds — *quisque*, each; *quisnam*, who in the world; and *quisquam*, any one, are found as feminines.

f. When two only are referred to, *uter* (see 145 and 146),

not *quis*, is the interrogative used. So *uterque* means "each" (of two), *quisque*, "each" (of several).

NOTE. It will be noticed that the above three pronouns have forms with ā- stems, with o- stems, and with i- stems.

185. There are two compound relative pronouns, *quicumque* and *quisquis*, meaning "whoever." *Quicumque* is declined like *quī*. *Quisquis* is used only in certain forms, as follows: —

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quisquis	(quisquis)	quidquid (quicquid)
Acc.	quemquem	_____	quidquid (quicquid)
Abl.	quōquō	quāquā	quōquō

Plural.

Nom. quīquī
Dat. quibusquibus

a. *Modī* is joined to *quisquis*, as to the demonstratives, but in an old form of the genitive, *cuicuiomodī*, of whatever kind.

b. Indefinite interrogatives are formed from *quis* by various particles; as, *ecquis*, *numquis*, any one? *Quisnam*, who, pray? is emphatic for *quis*. These words are common only in certain cases, and are often written as two words. The feminine nominative singular and neuter nominative and accusative plural generally end in *qua*, not *quae*.

c. So various quasi-compounds are formed from the indefinite *quis*; as, *sīquis*, *nēquis*, often written separately; *quīlibet*, *quīvīs*, *quispiam*, *quisquam*, *quīdam*, with *quisque*, each, and *ūnusquisque*, each and all. They are all declined like *quis*, but *quisquam* is not used in the feminine nor in the plural, and *quispiam* has in the plural only the feminine nominative *quae-piam*. A form *ūnumquidquid* occurs in Plautus and Lucretius.

d. The order of the indefinite pronouns from less to greater definiteness is as follows: —

quisquam, any one whatever.

quālibet,
quīvīs, } any you please.

quis, any.

aliquis, some one or other, any one.

quispiam, some one.

quādam, some particular one.

NOTE. **Quo-** was the old form of spelling for **cu-** in these pronouns (cf. 59, c), so that we find in inscriptions and in Plautus and Terence *quoius* (originally trissyl.), and then *quōius* (dissyl.), for *cūius*, *quoi* for *cui*, *quovīs* for *cuvīs*, etc.

For the use of indefinite pronouns, see Syntax, 454 ff.

POSSESSIVES.

186. (1.) Possessives are formed from the personal pronouns (including the reflexive), and from the interrogative (and relative). Thus: *meus*, my; *tuus*, thy, your; *suus*, his, hers, etc.; *noster*, our; *vester*, your; *cūius* (relative and interrogative), whose.

(2.) They are declined regularly, *meus*, *mea*, *meum*, etc.; *noster*, *nostra*, *nostrum*, etc.: except that the vocative singular masculine of *meus* is generally *mī* (otherwise *meus* like nominative); the others have no vocative.

a. *Cūius* is used only in a few forms, as follows: —

	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
	M.	F.	N.	F.
Nom.	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūia</i>	<i>cūium</i>	<i>cūiaē</i>
Acc.	<i>cūium</i>	<i>cūiam</i>	_____	<i>cūiās</i>
Abl.	_____	<i>cūiā</i>	_____	_____

b. The suffixes *-met* and (chiefly in the ablative) *-pte* are sometimes annexed to the possessives to give them emphasis. Thus: *tuīsmet*, *meāpte*, etc.

NOTE. Old forms of the genitive plural of the possessive pronouns in *-um* for *-orum* occur in comedy; as, *meūm*, *vostrūm*. *Sovos*, *sova*, *sovom*, are found in inscriptions, for *suus*, *sua*, *suum*. The older spellings of *cūius*, *-a*, *-um*, were *quoius*, *-a*, *-um* (originally trissyl.), *quōius*, *-a*, *-um* (dissyl.) (cf. 185, note).

187. For convenience of reference the following table of correlative pronouns and adverbs is here given : —

INTERROGATIVE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.	GENERAL RELATIVE.	INDEFINITE.
uter, <i>which (of two) ?</i>	uterque, <i>each (of two).</i>	uter, <i>which (of two).</i>	utercumque, <i>whichever (of two).</i>	aliquis, <i>some or any one.</i>
quis, <i>who ?</i>	is (hic, etc.), <i>he, this.</i>	qui, <i>who.</i>	quisquis, <i>whoever.</i>	aliquantus, <i>of some extent.</i>
quantus, <i>how great ?</i>	tantus, <i>so great.</i>	quantus, <i>as great as.</i>	quantuscumque, <i>however great.</i>	aliquantulus, <i>of some little extent.</i>
quantulus, <i>how little ?</i>	tantulus, <i>so little.</i>	quantulus, <i>as little as.</i>	quantuluscumque, <i>however little.</i>	
quālis, <i>of what sort ?</i>	tālis, <i>such.</i>	quālis, <i>of which sort.</i>	quālescumque, <i>of whatever sort.</i>	
quot, <i>how many ?</i>	tot, <i>so many.</i>	quot, <i>as many as.</i>	quotquot, <i>however many.</i>	aliquot, <i>several.</i>
quotus, <i>of what rank ?</i> (totus), * <i>of such rank.</i>	ibī, <i>there.</i>	quotus, <i>of which rank.</i>	quotuscumque, <i>of whatever rank.</i>	
ubi, <i>where ?</i>		ubi, <i>where.</i>	ubiubi, <i>wherever.</i>	alicubi, <i>anywhere, somewhere.</i>
quō, <i>whither ?</i>	eō (hūc, illūc), <i>thither.</i>	quō, <i>whither.</i>	quōquō, <i>whithersoever.</i>	alicuō, <i>anywhither, somewhere.</i>
quōrsum, <i>toward what</i> hōrsum, <i>to this end.</i>		quōrsum, <i>to which end.</i>	quōquōversum, <i>to whatever end.</i>	alicuōversus, <i>to some or any end.</i>
quā, <i>where (what way) ?</i> eā, <i>there.</i>		quā, <i>where (which way).</i>	quāquā, <i>wherever.</i>	alicuā, <i>somewhere, anywhere.</i>
unde, <i>whence ?</i>	inde, <i>thence.</i>	unde, <i>whence.</i>	undicumque, <i>from whatever quarter.</i>	alicunde, <i>from some or any quarter.</i>
quandō, <i>when ?</i>	tum (nunc †), <i>then, now.</i>	cum, <i>when.</i>	quandocumque, <i>whenever.</i>	alicuandō, <i>some or any time, at length.</i>
quam, <i>how ?</i>	tam, <i>so (much).</i>	quam, <i>as (much).</i>	quamvis, <i>however (much).</i>	
quotiens, <i>how often ?</i>	totiens, <i>so often.</i>	quotiens, <i>as often as.</i>	quotiescumque, <i>however often.</i>	aliquotiens, <i>several times.</i>
ut, <i>how ?</i>	ita (sic), <i>so, thus.</i>	ut, <i>as.</i>	utut, <i>utcumque, however.</i>	

* Very rare, and not to be confused with *tōtus*, whole.

† Nunc : tunc :: hic : ille, etc.

PATRIALS.

188. The patrials are formed from the stems of the possessives *noster* and *cūius*, and indicate the country to which one belongs. Thus: *nostrās*, of our country; *cūiās*, of what country?

a. They are declined regularly like adjectives of one ending: *nostrās*, *nostrātis*, etc., but are used only in certain forms, as follows: —

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>		
N.	<i>nostrās</i>	<i>cūiās</i> (qu <i>oiās</i>)	<i>nostrātēs</i>	<i>nostrātia</i>	<i>cūiatēs</i> (m.)
G.	<i>nostrātis</i>	<i>cūiātis</i>	_____	_____	_____
Ac.	_____	<i>cūiātem</i> (m.)	_____	_____	_____
Ab.	_____	_____	<i>nostrātibus</i>	_____	_____

Nostrātis and *cūiātis* also occur as nominatives.

NOTE. A form *vestrās*, of your country, is given by Priscian and other ancient grammarians.

VERBS.

189. Verbs are either TRANSITIVE (*trānsitīva*) or INTRANSITIVE (*intrānsitīva*).*

190. A TRANSITIVE verb marks an action as directly applied to an object; as, *videt leōnem*, he SEES the lion.

191. An INTRANSITIVE verb denotes a state or marks an action as *not* directly applied to any object; † as, *stō*, I stand; *dormit*, he is sleeping; *veniunt*, they come.

192. To verbs belong VOICE (*genus†*), MOOD (*modus*), TENSE (*tempus*), PERSON (*persōna*), and NUMBER (*numerus*).

* Scientifically, we should not speak of verbs themselves as transitive or intransitive, but of transitive and intransitive uses of a verb.

† An intransitive verb is sometimes accompanied by an apparent object, which is, however, really an adverbial modifier; as, "I slept (for) *three hours*."

‡ So called from a false analogy with gender in nouns.

VOICE.

193. (1.) VOICE is distinguished as ACTIVE (*āctīvum*) or PASSIVE (*passīvum*).

(2.) The ACTIVE voice represents the subject as acting. Thus: *Caesar Gallōs vīcit*, Caesar conquered the Gauls.

(3.) The PASSIVE voice represents the subject as acted upon. Thus: *Gallī ā Caesare victī sunt*, the Gauls were conquered by Caesar.

a. In some languages there is also a special form to represent the subject as acting upon itself. This is called a MIDDLE voice. The Latin passive seems to have been at first of this kind, and a few instances of the use survived in classical times. Thus: *Androgeī galeam clipeūque īnsigne decōrum induitur*, he puts on the helmet of Androgeus and his beautifully ornamented shield (Verg., *Ae.*, ii., 392).

b. The place of the middle voice is generally supplied, however, by the active with a reflexive pronoun. Thus: *pōmīs sē arbōs induit*, the tree clothes itself with fruit (see Verg., *G.*, iv., 143); *quōcumque tē animō et cōgītātīōne converteris* (future perfect), whithersoever you turn in mind and thought (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 2, 6).

194. Intransitive verbs have as such only the active voice. In Latin, however, they may be used impersonally in the passive. (See 318, 3, and 387.)

195. Some verbs, having the form of the passive, have the meaning of the active. They are called DEONENTS (*dēpōnentia*).* Thus: *sequor*, I follow; *morior*, I die.

a. The deponents are really remnants of the middle voice, as may be seen by the etymological meaning of many of them; as, *recordor*, I remind myself (hence "remember").

196. Four verbs have the active form in the tenses from the present stem, and the passive form in their other

* From *dēpōnō*, lay aside, because they have laid aside the active form and the passive meaning.

parts, but all with active meaning. They are called SEMI-DEPONENTS (*sēmi-dēpōnentia*).

a. They are: *audeō*, dare; *fīdō*, trust (with its compounds); *gaudeō*, am glad; and *soleō*, am wont.

MOOD.

197. There are three MOODS: the INDICATIVE (*indicātīvus*), the SUBJUNCTIVE (*subjūnctīvus*), and the IMPERATIVE (*imperātīvus*).

NOTE. The infinitive is also often reckoned among the moods, but it is really a verbal noun, and according to the best usage at present is treated with the other noun parts of the verb. (See 202 and 203.)

198. (1.) The INDICATIVE is used to speak of things as they are, to assert, deny, or question a fact. Thus: *veniō*, I come; *audīsne*, do you hear?

(2.) The SUBJUNCTIVE is used to speak of things as they seem in the mind, to represent ideas or notions. Thus the subjunctive expresses a purpose, a wish, a supposition, etc. Examples are: —

Puerum mīsīt quī dīceret, he sent a boy to say.

Utinam pater adesset, oh, that my father were here.

Faciāt ille sī eum rogēs, he would do it if you should ask him.

a. The difference between the indicative and the subjunctive is perhaps most clearly seen in the expression of a cause. Thus: —

Indicative: *Hōc dīxit quod vērū erat*, he said this because it was true;

Subjunctive: *Hōc dīxit quod vērū esset*, he said this because (as he thought) it was true.*

(3.) The IMPERATIVE is used to express a command or exhortation. Thus: *haec nūtiāte rēgī vestrō*, tell this to your king; *amā inimīcōs tuōs*, love your enemies.

* The pupil should be cautioned against supposing that the subjunctive implies that a thing is *not* a fact. It expresses only as an idea a thing which also may be a fact or may not.

TENSE.

199. There are six TENSES: the PRESENT (*praesēns*), IMPERFECT (*imperfectum*), FUTURE (*futūrum*), PERFECT (*perfectum*), PLUPERFECT (*plūsquamperfectum*), and FUTURE PERFECT (*futūrum exāctum*).

a. The Latin tenses correspond in general to the English tenses of the same names, but are used more strictly. It should be noticed also that the Latin imperfect is mostly confined to the progressive sense (was doing, having, etc.), while the Latin perfect serves generally for the English imperfect as well as perfect.

b. When the Latin perfect corresponds to the English perfect it is called the PERFECT DEFINITE or PRESENT PERFECT; when it corresponds to the English imperfect it is called the HISTORICAL PERFECT.

200. The tenses are divided into —

(1.) PRIMARY or PRINCIPAL tenses: present, perfect definite, and the two futures.

(2.) SECONDARY or HISTORICAL tenses: imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect.

a. Only the indicative has all six tenses; the subjunctive has no future; the imperative has only the present and the future, the latter expressing the command more gently.

NUMBER AND PERSON.

201. There are two NUMBERS, SINGULAR and PLURAL, as in nouns, and three PERSONS, the FIRST denoting the speaker, the SECOND denoting the person spoken to, and the THIRD denoting the person or thing spoken of.

a. The imperative has in the present only the second person, in the future the second and third persons.

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

202. (1.) The three moods with their various tenses,

numbers, and persons, form what is called the FINITE VERB (*verbum finitum*).

(2.) The verb has also three noun forms and two adjective forms, as follows: —

a. Noun forms: INFINITIVE (*infinitivus*).

GERUND (*gerundium*).

SUPINE (*supinum*).

b. Adjective forms: PARTICIPLE (*participium*).

GERUNDIVE (*gerundivum*).

NOTE. These five parts are sometimes classed together as the *verbum infinitum*.

203. (1.) The INFINITIVE is chiefly used as a neuter noun in the nominative or accusative singular. Thus: —

Hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.

In animō habeo Rōmam ire, I intend to go to Rome.

(2.) The infinitive is also used in certain special constructions (see 530 ff.), and has three tenses, present, perfect, and future. Thus: —

Pres. *dīcere*, to say.

Perf. *dixisse*, to have said.

Fut. *dictūrus esse*, to be on the point of saying.

204. The GERUND is a noun of the second declension (stem ending in *-ndo-*), used only in the oblique cases of the singular. The infinitive supplies its nominative. Thus: —

Vēnandī causā, for the sake of hunting; *fessus vēnandō*, weary with hunting.

But: *salūbre est vēnārī*, hunting is healthful.

205. The SUPINE is a noun of the fourth declension (stem ending in *-tu-*) used only in the accusative and ablative singular. Thus: —

Vēniō rogātum, I come to ask (for asking).

Difficile intellēctū, hard to understand (in the understanding of it).

For the syntax of the supine see 553 ff.

206. There are three PARTICIPLES; the PRESENT ACTIVE, the FUTURE ACTIVE, and the PERFECT PASSIVE. Thus: —

Pres. Act. *dīcēns*, saying.

Fut. Act. *dictūrus*, on the point of saying.

Perf. Pass. *dictus*, said (having been said).

a. The perfect participle of deponent verbs generally has an active meaning; as, *secūtus*, having followed. So also the perfect participle of the following four verbs: —

cēnō, dine; *cēnātus*, having dined.

iūrō, swear; *iūrātus*, having sworn.

pōtō, drink; *pōtus*, having drunk.

prandeō, breakfast; *prānsus*, having breakfasted.

207. (1.) The GERUNDIVE is an adjective of the first and second declension (having the same stem as the gerund). Thus: *amandus*, *docendus*.

(2.) Used to agree with a subject in the nominative or accusative, it denotes necessity or obligation. Thus: —

Docendus est puer, the boy must be taught.

Vir venerandus, a man to be revered.

Dixit id faciendum esse, he said it must be done.

(3.) In other situations the idea of obligation is more hidden. Thus: —

Ad pācem petendam vēnit, he came to ask for peace (*i. e.*, with regard to the peace to be asked for).

Urbis condendae cōsilium, the design of founding a city.

a. In late Latin the gerundive became a future passive participle. *Faciendus* would then mean merely “on the point of being done.”

CONJUGATION.

Tense-Stems.

208. Three special stems — the PRESENT stem, the PERFECT stem, and the PERFECT PARTICIPLE stem — are distinguished in the verb.

209. From the PRESENT stem are formed in both voices the present, imperfect, and future in all the moods; also the present infinitive, the present participle, and the gerund and gerundive.

210. From the PERFECT stem are formed, in the active voice only, the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses, and the perfect infinitive.

211. From the PERFECT PARTICIPLE stem is formed the perfect participle passive, which with the parts of *esse*, to be, forms in the passive voice those tenses which in the active are formed from the perfect stem.

a. The supine has a (noun) stem of its own, and the future participle has a derivative (adjective) stem. The future infinitive active is formed by the future participle with *esse*. The future infinitive passive is formed by the supine with *īrī* (the present infinitive passive of *īre*, to go).*

b. The supine and the perfect and future participles, though not connected in derivation, have a *mechanical* similarity of basis which helps to fix them in the mind.

Thus : —

Perf. Part.	Supine.	Fut. Part.
rēctus	rēctum	rēctūrus
cāsus	cāsum	cāsūrus
flexus	flexum	flexūrus
monitus	monitum	monitūrus
amātus	amātum	amātūrus

* The parts here mentioned, together with the perfect participle and the tenses formed by it, have been commonly grouped together and derived from a so-called supine stem. It has seemed best to give up this wholly unscientific point of view, but not to depart further from the traditional explanation of the verb forms. The pupil should be warned, however, that this explanation is true only of the *apparent* structure of the verb in its developed state as met in literature. Many of the tenses which seem to belong to the same stem have in reality very varied origins. For instance, the imperfect subjunctive probably does not belong to the present stem at all, but grew from the same form as the perfects in *-si*.

212. The following table shows the tenses formed from each of the stems:—

PRESENT STEM.

	ACTIVE.			PASSIVE.		
Indicative	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Imp.</i>	<i>Future.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Imp.</i>	<i>Future.</i>
Subjunctive	"	"		"	"	
Imperative	"		"	"		"
Infinitive	"			"		
Participle	"					
	Gerund.			Gerundive.		

PERFECT STEM.

PERF. PART. STEM.

	ACTIVE.			PASSIVE.		
Indicative	<i>Perf.</i>	<i>Plup.</i>	<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	<i>Perf.</i>	<i>Plup.</i>	<i>Fut. Perf.</i>
Subjunctive	"	"		"	"	
Infinitive	"			"		
Participle				"		

FUTURE PART. with *esse* = Future Infin. Active.

SUPINE " *īrī* = " " Passive.

Personal Endings.

213. The FINITE forms of the verb have the following PERSONAL ENDINGS: * —

(1.) INDICATIVE (except PERFECT) and SUBJUNCTIVE.

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Sing. 1st Pers.</i>	-m or —	-r
<i>2d Pers.</i>	-s	-ris (<i>shortened -re</i>)
<i>3d Pers.</i>	-t	-tur
<i>Plur. 1st Pers.</i>	-mus	-mur
<i>2d Pers.</i>	-tis	-minī
<i>3d Pers.</i>	-nt	-ntur

* These personal endings are regarded usually as remnants of the personal pronoun forms. But see Brugmann in *Handbuch der Altertumswiss.*, ii., p. 72, § 106.

(2.) PERFECT INDICATIVE ACTIVE.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Pers.	—	-mus
2d Pers.	-stī	-stis
3d Pers.	-t	-ērunt (<i>shortened -ēre</i>)

(3.) IMPERATIVE.

	PRESENT.		FUTURE.	
	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Sing. 2d Pers.</i>	—	-re	-tō	-tor
<i>3d Pers.</i>			-tō	-tor
<i>Plur. 2d Pers.</i>	-te	-minī	-tōte	
<i>3d Pers.</i>			-ntō	-ntor

214. The ENDINGS of the NOUN and ADJECTIVE forms of the verb are as follows:—

	INFINITIVES.		PARTICIPLES.	
	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
Pres. -re		-rī (-ī in 3d conj.) †	-ns (-ntis)	—
Perf. -isse		-tus (-a, -um) esse	—	-tus, -a, -um
Fut. -tūrus (-a, -um) esse	-tum	īrī	-tūrus, -a, -um	—

GERUNDIVE and GERUND.

-ndus, -a, -um, etc.

SUPINE.

-tum, -tū

215. sum, I am, is conjugated as follows:—

Pres. Stem es-

Perf. Stem fu-

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
sum, I am.	sumus, we are.
es, thou art.	estis, you are.
est, he is.	sunt, they are.

* The apparently different endings of the perfect indicative are due to the mixed origin of that tense, and can be best explained elsewhere.

† Sometimes -rier (-ier).



IMPERFECT.

eram, I was.	erāmus, we were.
erās, thou wast.	erātis, you were.
erat, he was.	erant, they were.

FUTURE.

erō, I shall be.	erimus, we shall be.
eris, thou wilt be.	eritis, you will be.
erit, he will be.	erunt, they will be.

PERFECT.

fuī, I have been.	fuimus, we have been.
fuistī, thou hast been.	fuistis, you have been.
fuit, he has been.	fuērunt (-re), they have been.

PLUPERFECT.

fueram, I had been.	fuerāmus, we had been.
fuerās, thou hadst been.	fuerātis, you had been.
fuerat, he had been.	fuerant, they had been.

FUTURE PERFECT.

fuerō, I shall have been.	fuerimus, we shall have been.
fueris, thou wilt have been.	fueritis, you will have been.
fuerit, he will have been.	fuerint, they will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

sim	sīmus
sīs	sītis
sit	sint

IMPERFECT.

essem	essēmus
essēs	essētis
esset	essent

PERFECT.

fuerim	fuerimus
fueris	fueritis
fuerit	fuerint

PLUPERFECT.

fuissem	fuissēmus
fuissēs	fuissētis
fuisset	fuissent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

es, be thou.	este, be ye.
--------------	--------------

FUTURE.

estō	estōte
estō	suntō

	INFINITIVES.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres.	esse, to be.	_____
Perf.	fuisse, to have been.	_____
Fut.	futūrus esse <i>or</i> fore, to be on the point of being.	futūrus, -a, -um, on the point of being.

a. It will be seen that the parts of *sum* are from two different roots, *√es* for the tenses from the present stem, the *e* disappearing in various forms, and *s* between two vowels becoming *r* (see 67); and *√fu* for the other forms. *Fueram, fuissem*, etc., are compounded of both roots.

b. A present participle *sēns* is seen in the compounds *absēns* and *praesēns*.

c. Old forms are —

Present Subj.	siem, siēs, siet, sient. fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant.
Imperf. Subj.	forem, forēs, foret, forent.
Perfect Subj.	fuverint.
Pluperf. Subj.	fuvisset.
Perf. Indic.	fuvimus.
Fut. Indic.	ēscit, ēscunt.*

d. *Prōsum*, am profitable, retains the original *d* of the preposition where the simple verb begins with a vowel. Thus: *prōsum, prōdes, prōdest*, etc.

216. *possum*, compounded of *potis*, able, and *sum*, is conjugated as follows: —

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
possum, I can.	possumus, we can.
potes, thou canst.	potestis, you can.
potest, he can.	possunt, they can.

* Really inceptive presents.

IMPERFECT.

poteram, I could.	poterāmus, we could.
poterās, thou couldst.	poterātis, you could.
poterat, he could.	poterant, they could.

FUTURE.

poterō, I shall be able.	poterimus, we shall be able.
poteris, thou wilt be able.	poteritis, you will be able.
poterit, he will be able.	poterunt, they will be able.

PERFECT.

potuī, I have been able (could).	potuimus, we have been able (could).
potuistī, thou hast been able (couldst).	potuistis, you have been able (could).
potuit, he has been able (could).	potuērunt (-re), they have been able (could).

PLUPERFECT.

potueram, I had been able.	potuerāmus, we had been able.
potuerās, thou hadst been able.	potuerātis, you had been able.
potuerat, he had been able.	potuerant, they had been able.

FUTURE PERFECT.

potuerō, I shall have been able.	potuerimus, we shall have been able.
potueris, thou wilt have been able.	potueritis, you will have been able.
potuerit, he will have been able.	potuerint, they will have been able.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
possim	possīmus
possīs	possītis
possit	possint

IMPERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
possem	possēmus
possēs	possētis
posset	possent

PERFECT.

potuerim	potuerimus
potueris	potueritis
potuerit	potuerint

PLUPERFECT.

potuissem	potuissēmus
potuissēs	potuissētis
potuisset	potuissent

(No Imperative.)

INFINITIVES.

Pres. posse
Perf. potuisse

PARTICIPLE

(used only as adjective).
Pres. potēns

a. Rare forms are —

Pres. Indic. potessunt.

Pres. Subj. potessim, potessit; possiem, possiēs, possiet.

Imper. Subj. potessem.

Pres. Infin. potesse.

b. With a passive infinitive are sometimes found —
potestur, poterātur, possētur.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

217. Regular Verbs are divided into four conjugations, distinguished by the vowel before the ending (-re) of the present infinitive active. Thus: —

Conjugation.	Infinitive.	Vowel.*
I.	amāre	ā.
II.	monēre	ē.
III.	regere †	e.
IV.	audire	ī.

a. The four conjugations are produced by the union of precisely the same endings with different kinds of verb-stems, and are therefore strictly only one conjugation. Verbs with stems in ā- belong to the first conjugation, those with stems in ē- to the second, those with consonant or u- stems to the third, and those with stems in ī- to the fourth.

* This vowel is sometimes called the CHARACTERISTIC.

† See first footnote, page 100.

b. Between the verb-stem and the ending in the tenses from the present stem there is a vowel called the **THEMATIC** vowel. This vowel contracts with the stem vowel in the first, second, and fourth conjugations, producing *ā*, *ē*, *ī*, respectively. In the third conjugation it appears as *u* (older *o*) before a nasal (*m* and *n*), and as *e* (often weakened to *i*) before other consonants.*

Formation of the Three Tense-Stems.

218. (1.) In the first and fourth conjugations, and in the few corresponding verbs of the second, the stems show the following formations:—

a. Present stem is the verb-stem contracted with the thematic vowel.

b. Perfect stem is present stem + *v*.

c. Perfect participle stem is present stem + *to*.

Thus:—

<i>amāre</i>	✓ <i>am</i>	<i>amā-</i>	<i>amāv-</i>	<i>amāto-</i>
<i>flēre</i>	✓ <i>fle(v)</i>	<i>flē-</i>	<i>flēv-</i>	<i>flēto-</i>
<i>audīre</i>	✓ <i>aud</i>	<i>audī-</i>	<i>audīv-</i>	<i>audīto-</i>

(2.) But in the second conjugation most verbs form the perfect stem directly from the root, *v* then appearing as *u* after the root-consonant; their perfect participle stem is also formed directly from the root and frequently has an intervening *i* before the ending. Thus:—

<i>docēre</i>	✓ <i>doc</i>	<i>docē-</i>	<i>docu-</i>	<i>docto-</i>
<i>monēre</i>	✓ <i>mon</i>	<i>monē-</i>	<i>monu-</i>	<i>monito-†</i>

219. (1.) In the third conjugation the present and

* The third conjugation is the oldest, and shows the noun origin of the infinitive most plainly, namely, that it is really the dative or locative of a noun like *genus* or *pignus*, dative *generi* and *pignerī*. Old forms of the dative in *ē* occur in inscriptions.

† The origin of this *i* is uncertain. It may be the thematic vowel, or in some cases a parasitic vowel (see 64), or, which is perhaps most likely, it may have been weakened from *ē*; as, *monētum*, *monētum*, *monitum*. Words like *obsoletus* and *monēta*, with the series of nouns in *-ētum*, — *vinētum*, *querētum*, etc., — beside forms like *meretō* in inscriptions, support this last view.

perfect stems present various peculiarities which can best be treated in detail later. The commonest forms of perfect stem are those in *s-*, and those which have the same form as the present stem, or only lengthen the stem-vowel.

(2.) The perfect participle stem is formed from the root except in the case of the derivative *u-* verbs, where it is formed from the stem with the vowel lengthened. The *t* often appears euphonically as *s*. Thus:—

regere	✓ reg	rege-	rēx-	rēcto-
fundere	✓ fud	funde-	fūd-	fūso-
statuere	✓ sta	statue-	statu-	statūto-

Principal Parts.

220. The PRINCIPAL PARTS of a Latin verb are the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Perfect Participle. In the case of passive and deponent verbs the perfect participle is not counted, being included in the perfect indicative.

NOTE. The principal parts are so called because they furnish the key to the conjugation of the whole verb. The present indicative names the verb. The present infinitive is also used to name the verb, as in English, but its more important function is to show to which conjugation the verb belongs. The three stems are shown by the infinitive, the perfect, and the perfect participle.

221. The principal parts in the four conjugations are as follows:—

Conjugation.	Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Perf. Part.
I.	amō	amāre	amāvī	amātus
II.	{ fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētus
	{ doceō	docēre	docuī	doctus
	{ moneō	monēre	monuī	monitus
III.	{ regō	regere	rēxī	rēctus *
	{ fundō	fundere	fūdī	fūsus *
	{ statuō	statuere	statuī	statūtus *
IV.	audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītus

* These examples show, of course, only a few of the stem forms in this conjugation.

222.

ACTIVE VOICE.

I. Conjugation.

II. Conjugation.

amāre,
to loveflēre,
to weepmonēre,
to put in mind

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.	amō	flēō	moneō
Pres. Infin.	amāre	flēre	monēre
Perf. Ind.	amāvī	flēvī	monui
Perf. Part.	amātus	flētus	monitus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular	amō	flēō	moneō
	amās	flēs	monēs
	amat	flet	monet
Plural	amāmus	flēmus	monēmus
	amātis	flētis	monētis
	amant	flent	monent

IMPERFECT.

Singular	amābam	flēbam	monēbam
	amābās	flēbās	monēbās
	amābat	flēbat	monēbat
Plural	amābāmus	flēbāmus	monēbāmus
	amābātis	flēbātis	monēbātis
	amābant	flēbant	monēbant

FUTURE.

Singular	amābō	flēbō	monēbō
	amābis	flēbis	monēbis
	amābit	flēbit	monēbit
Plural	amābimus	flēbimus	monēbimus
	amābitis	flēbitis	monēbitis
	amābunt	flēbunt	monēbunt

ACTIVE VOICE.

III. Conjugation.

IV. Conjugation.

regere,
to rule

capere,
to take

venīre,
to come

audīre,
to hear

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

regō
regere
rēxī
rēctus

capiō
capere
cēpī
captus

veniō
venīre
vēnī
ventum *

audiō
audīre
audīvī
audītus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

regō
regis
regit

capiō
capis
capit

veniō
venīs
venit

audiō
audīs
audit

regimus
regitis
regunt

capimus
capitis
capiunt

venīmus
venītis
veniunt

audīmus
audītis
audiunt

IMPERFECT.

regēbam
regēbās
regēbat

capiēbam
capiēbās
capiēbat

veniēbam
veniēbās
veniēbat

audiēbam
audiēbās
audiēbat

regēbāmus
regēbātis
regēbant

capiēbāmus
capiēbātis
capiēbant

veniēbāmus
veniēbātis
veniēbant

audiēbāmus
audiēbātis
audiēbant

FUTURE.

regam
regēs
reget

capiam
capiēs
capiet

veniam
veniēs
veniet

audiam
audiēs
audiet

regēmus
regētis
regent

capiēmus
capiētis
capiient

veniēmus
veniētis
venient

audiēmus
audiētis
audient

* Used only impersonally, since *venīre* is an intransitive verb. (Cf. 194.)

PERFECT.

Singular	amāvī	flēvī	monuī
	amāvistī	flēvistī	monuistī
	amāvit	flēvit	monuit
Plural	amāvimus	flēvimus	monuimus
	amāvistis	flēvistis	monuistis
	amāvērunt	flēvērunt	monuērunt
	(-ēre)*	(-ēre)	(-ēre)

PLUPERFECT.

Singular	amāveram	flēveram	monueram
	amāverās	flēverās	monuerās
	amāverat	flēverat	monuerat
Plural	amāverāmus	flēverāmus	monuerāmus
	amāverātis	flēverātis	monuerātis
	amāverant	flēverant	monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

Singular	amāverō	flēverō	monuerō
	amāveris	flēveris	monueris
	amāverit	flēverit	monuerit
Plural	amāverimus	flēverimus	monuerimus
	amāveritis	flēveritis	monueritis
	amāverint	flēverint	monuerint

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Singular	amem	fleam	moneam
	amēs	fleās	moneās
	amet	fleat	moneat
Plural	amēmus	fleāmus	moneāmus
	amētis	fleātis	moneātis
	ament	fleant	moneant

* The forms in -ēre are rare in prose, except in the historians.

PERFECT.

rēxī	cēpī	vēnī	audīvī
rēxistī	cēpistī	vēnistī	audīvistī
rēxit	cēpit	vēnit	audīvit
rēximus	cēpimus	vēnimus	audīvimus
rēxistis	cēpistis	vēnistis	audīvistis
rēxērunt	cēpērunt	vēnērunt	audīvērunt
(-ēre)*	(-ēre)	(-ēre)	(-ēre)

PLUPERFECT.

rēxeram	cēperam	vēneram	audīveram
rēxerās	cēperās	vēnerās	audīverās
rēxerat	cēperat	vēnerat	audīverat
rēxerāmus	cēperāmus	vēnerāmus	audīverāmus
rēxerātis	cēperātis	vēnerātis	audīverātis
rēxerant	cēperant	vēnerant	audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT.

rēxerō	cēperō	vēnerō	audīverō
rēxeris	cēperis	vēneris	audīveris
rēxerit	cēperit	vēnerit	audīverit
rēxerimus	cēperimus	vēnerimus	audīverimus
rēxeritis	cēperitis	vēneritis	audīveritis
rēxerint	cēperint	vēnerint	audīverint

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

regam	capiam	veniam	audiam
regās	capiās	veniās	audiās
regat	capiat	veniat	audiat
regāmus	capiāmus	veniāmus	audiāmus
regātis	capiātis	veniātis	audiātis
regant	capiant	veniant	audiant

* The forms in -ēre are rare in prose, except in the historians.

IMPERFECT.

Singular	amārem	flērem	monērem
	amārēs	flērēs	monērēs
	amāret	flēret	monēret
Plural	amārēmus	flērēmus	monērēmus
	amārētis	flērētis	monērētis
	amārent	flērent	monērent

PERFECT.

Singular	amāverim	flēverim	monuerim
	amāveris	flēveris	monueris
	amāverit	flēverit	monuerit
Plural	amāverimus	flēverimus	monuerimus
	amāveritis	flēveritis	monueritis
	amāverint	flēverint	monuerint

PLUPERFECT.

Singular	amāvissem	flēvissem	monuisssem
	amāvissēs	flēvissēs	monuissēs
	amāvisset	flēvisset	monuisset
Plural	amāvissēmus	flēvissēmus	monuissēmus
	amāvissētis	flēvissētis	monuissētis
	amāvissent	flēvissent	monuissent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Sing. 2d Per.	amā	flē	monē
Plur. 2d Per.	amāte	flēte	monēte

FUTURE.

Sing. 2d Per.	amātō	flētō	monētō
3d Per.	amātō	flētō	monētō
Plur. 2d Per.	amātōte	flētōte	monētōte
3d Per.	amantō	flentō	monentō

IMPERFECT.

regerem	caperem	venīrem	audīrem
regerēs	caperēs	venīrēs	audīrēs
regeret	caperet	venīret	audīret
regerēmus	caperēmus	venīrēmus	audīrēmus
regerētis	caperētis	venīrētis	audīrētis
regerent	caperent	venīrent	audīrent

PERFECT.

rēxerim	cēperim	vēnerim	audīverim
rēxeris	cēperis	vēneris	audīveris
rēxerit	cēperit	vēnerit	audīverit
rēxerimus	cēperimus	vēnerimus	audīverimus
rēxeritis	cēperitis	vēneritis	audīveritis
rēxerint	cēperint	vēnerint	audīverint

PLUPERFECT.

rēxissem	cēpissem	vēnissem	audīvissem
rēxissēs	cēpissēs	vēnissēs	audīvissēs
rēxisset	cēpisset	vēnisset	audīvisset
rēxissēmus	cēpissēmus	vēnissēmus	audīvissēmus
rēxissētis	cēpissētis	vēnissētis	audīvissētis
rēxissent	cēpissent	vēnissent	audīvissent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

rege	cape	venī	audī
regite	capite	venīte	audīte

FUTURE.

regitō	capitō	venitō	audītō
regitō	capitō	venitō	audītō
regitōte	capitōte	venitōte	audītōte
reguntō	capiunto	veniuntō	audiuntō

INFINITIVES.

Pres.	amāre	flēre	monēre
Perf.	amāvisse	flēvisse	monuisse
Future	amātūrus	flētūrus	monitūrus
	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	amāns	flēns	monēns
Future	amātūrus	flētūrus	monitūrus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)

GERUND.

Gen.	amandī	flendī	monendī
D. & A.	amandō	flendō	monendō
Acc.	amandum	flendum	monendum

SUPINE.

Acc.	amātum	[flētum] *	monitum
Abl.	amātū	flētū	monitū

223.

PASSIVE VOICE.

I. Conjugation.

II. Conjugation.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.	amor	doceor †	moneor
Pres. Inf.	amārī	docērī	monērī
Perf. Ind.	amātus sum	doctus sum	monitus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Singular	amor	doceor	moneor
	amāris (-re) ‡	docēris (-re)	monēris (-re)
	amātur	docētur	monētur
Plural	amāmur	docēmur	monēmur
	amāminī	docēminī	monēminī
	amantur	docentur	monentur

* Not found in actual use in the Latin that has come down to us.

† Meaning, *I am taught*. The active voice is perfectly regular, and is omitted only because *flēō* beside *moneō* furnishes a more instructive paradigm.

‡ The forms in -re are rare in the present tense.

INFINITIVES.

regere	capere	venire	audire
rēxisse	cēpisse	venisse	audivisse
rēctūrus	captūrus	ventūrus	audītūrus
(-a, um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse

PARTICIPLES.

regēns	capiēns	veniēns	audiēns
rēctūrus	captūrus	ventūrus	audītūrus
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)

GERUND.

regendī	capiendī	veniendī	audiendī
regendō	capiendō	veniendō	audiendō
regendum	capiendum	veniendum	audiendum

SUPINE.

rēctum	captum	ventum	audītum
rēctū	captū	ventū	audītū

PASSIVE VOICE.

III. Conj.

IV. Conj.

Deponent.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

regor	capior	audior	mīror *
regī	capī	audīrī	mīrārī
rēctus sum	captus sum	audītus sum	mīrātus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

regor	capior	audior	mīror
regeris (-re) †	caperis (-re)	audīris (-re)	mīrāris (-re)
regitur	capitur	audītur	mīrātur
regimur	capimur	audīmur	mīrāmur
regiminī	capiminī	audīminī	mīrāminī
reguntur	capiuntur	audiuntur	mīrantur

* Meaning, *I wonder at* or *admire*.

† The forms in -re are rare in the present tense.

IMPERFECT.

Singular	amābar	docēbar	monēbar
	amābāris	docēbāris	monēbāris
	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
	amābātur	docēbātur	monēbātur
Plural	amābāmur	docēbāmur	monēbāmur
	amābāminī	docēbāminī	monēbāminī
	amābantur	docēbantur	monēbantur

FUTURE.

Singular	amābor	docēbor	monēbor
	amāberis (-re)	docēberis (-re)	monēberis (-re)
	amābitur	docēbitur	monēbitur
Plural	amābimur	docēbimur	monēbimur
	amābiminī	docēbiminī	monēbiminī
	amābuntur	docēbuntur	monēbuntur

PERFECT.

Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amātī	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

PLUPERFECT.

Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amātī	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

FUTURE PERFECT.

Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amātī	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

IMPERFECT.

regēbar	capiēbar	audiēbar	mīrābar
regēbāris	capiēbāris	audiēbāris	mīrābāris
(-re)	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
regēbātur	capiēbātur	audiēbātur	mīrābātur
regēbāmur	capiēbāmur	audiēbāmur	mīrābāmur
regēbāminī	capiēbāminī	audiēbāminī	mīrābāminī
regēbantur	capiēbantur	audiēbantur	mīrābantur

FUTURE.

regar	capiar	audiar	mīrābor
regēris (-re)	capiēris (-re)	audiēris (-re)	mīrāberis (-re)
regētur	capiētur	audiētur	mīrābitur
regēmur	capiēmur	audiēmur	mīrābimur
regēminī	capiēminī	audiēminī	mīrābiminī
regentur	capiēntur	audientur	mīrābuntur

PERFECT.

rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus	{	sum
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)		es
					est
rēctī	captī	audītī	mīrātī	{	sumus
(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)		estis
					sunt

PLUPERFECT.

rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus	{	eram
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)		erās
					erat
rēctī	captī	audītī	mīrātī	{	erāmus
(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)		erātis
					erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus	{	erō
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)		eris
					erit
rēctī	captī	audītī	mīrātī	{	erimus
(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)		eritis
					erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Singular	amer	docear	monear
	amēris (-re)	doceāris (-re)	moneāris (-re)
	amētur	doceātur	moneātur
Plural	amēmur	doceāmur	moneāmur
	amēminī	doceāminī	moneāminī
	amentur	doceantur	moneantur

IMPERFECT.

Singular	amārer	docērer	monērer
	amārēris	docērēris	monērēris
	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
	amārētur	docērētur	monērētur
Plural	amārēmur	docērēmur	monērēmur
	amārēminī	docērēminī	monērēminī
	amārentur	docērentur	monērentur

PERFECT.

Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amātī	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

PLUPERFECT.

Singular	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Plural	amatī	doctī	monitī
	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

regar	capiar	audiar	mīrer
regāris (-re)	capiāris (-re)	audiāris (-re)	mīrēris (-re)
regātur	capiātur	audiātur	mīrētur
regāmur	capiāmur	audiāmur	mīrēmur
regāminī	capiāminī	audiāminī	mīrēminī
regantur	capiantur	audiantur	mīrentur

IMPERFECT.

regerer	caperer	audīrer	mīrārer
regerēris	caperēris	audīrēris	mīrārēris
(-re)	(-re)	(-re)	(-re)
regerētur	caperētur	audīrētur	mīrārētur
regerēmur	caperēmur	audīrēmur	mīrārēmur
regerēminī	caperēminī	audīrēminī	mīrārēminī
regerentur	caperentur	audīrentur	mīrārentur

PERFECT.

rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus	{	sim
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)		sīs
					sit
rēctī	captī	audītī	mīrātī	{	sīmus
(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)		sītis
					sint

PLUPERFECT.

rēctus	captus	audītus	mīrātus	{	essem
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)		essēs
					esset
rēctī	captī	audītī	mīrātī	{	essēmus
(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)	(-ae, -a)		essētis
					essent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

Sing. 2 P. amāre	docere	monere
Plur. 2 P. amāminī	docēminī	monēminī

FUTURE.

Sing. 2 P. amātor	docētor	monētor
3 P. amātor	docētor	monētor
Plur. 2 P. ———	———	———
3 P. amantor	docentor	monentor

INFINITIVES.

Present	amārī	docērī	monērī
Perfect	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse
Future	amātum irī	doctum irī	monitum irī

PARTICIPLES.

Present	———	———	———
Perfect	amātus	doctus	monitus
	(-a, um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
Future	———	———	———

GERUNDIVE.

amandus	docendus	monendus
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

regere	capere	audire	mīrāre
regimini	capimini	audimini	mīrāmini

FUTURE.

regitor	capitor	auditor	mīrator
regitor	capitor	auditor	mīrator
_____	_____	_____	_____
reguntor	capiuntor	audiuntor	mīrantor

INFINITIVES.

regī	capī	audīrī	mīrārī
rēctus	captus	auditus	mīrātus
(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse	(-a, -um) esse
rēctum īrī	captum īrī	audītum īrī	{ mīrātum īrī * mīrātūrus (-a, -um) esse

PARTICIPLES.

_____	_____	_____	mīrāns
rēctus	captus	auditus	mīrātus
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)
_____	_____	_____	mīrātūrus
			(-a, -um)

GERUNDIVE.

regendus	capiendus	audiendus	mīrandus *
(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)	(-a, -um)

GERUND.

mīrandī, etc.

SUPINE.

mīrātum, etc.

* The gerundive and the infinitive in *īrī* have passive meanings even in deponent verbs. Thus: *hīc vir mīrandus est*, this man must be admired; *dixit hōc mīrātum īrī*, he said this would be wondered at. So also sometimes the perfect participle.



224. The following forms can always be recognized by the presence of certain letters: * —

1. Imperf. indic., *ba*.
2. Fut. indic. in 1st and 2d. conj., *b* not followed by *a*.
3. Pres. subj., *†* except in 1st conj., *a* before personal ending.
4. Imperf. subj. is like pres. infin. *†* personal ending.
5. Pluperf. indic., *ra*.
6. Pluperf. subj., *isse* + personal ending. } In the active.
7. Perf. infin., *isse*.

a. It will also be seen that the present imperative passive second person singular has the same form as the present infinitive active. Furthermore, that the subjunctive present of the first conjugation resembles the future indicative of the third and fourth.

b. The letters *ri* show that the form in which they occur is *either* future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive active.

The following points may be noted in addition to the rules of quantity given in 37-53.

225. In the penultimate syllables of verb forms the following vowels before a single consonant are long: —

a always (but see *dare*).

e, except before *r*, and even then in the perfect indicative active and in the present subjunctive of the first conjugation and the future indicative of the third and fourth.

i in the fourth conjugation and analogous forms.

u, except in *sumus* and *volumus* (with their compounds), and the old forms *quaesumus*, *aestumō*, etc. (for later *quaerimus*, *aestimō*, etc.).

* To trace the origin and development of these elements in verb-forms would require entering more fully into comparative philology than is possible or desirable in a school grammar. They may be found discussed in Max Engelhardt's *Die lateinische Konjugation nach den Ergebnissen der Sprachvergleichung*.

† The first person singular in the third and fourth conjugations cannot, however, be thus distinguished from the first person of the future indicative, as that also has the *a*.

a. The *characteristics* of the first, second, and fourth conjugations (ā, ē, ī) are always long except when shortened in final syllables by the rules given in 46–50; that of the third conjugation (e) is always short.

Remarks on the Verb Forms.

226. Many verbs belonging to a given one of the four conjugations (as shown by their present infinitive) form their perfect and perfect participle stems after the analogy of some other conjugation. Thus:—

secō	secāre	secuī	sectus
petō	petere	petīvī	petitus
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsum (neut.)
veniō	venīre	vēnī	ventum (neut.)

NOTE. Such verbs are really mixtures of two verbs. Some of the forms of the root verbs (third conjugation) had disappeared, and their places were taken by derivative formations of the first, second, or fourth conjugation. The same mixture of forms accounts for the perfects in -uī and participles in -itus, in the second conjugation.

For lists of these irregular formations see 233 ff.

227. In the tenses formed from the present stem the following points should be noted:—

a. *Orior*, rise, and (chiefly in verse) *potior*, gain possession of, though belonging to the fourth conjugation, have several forms of the third. Thus:—

oreris, oritur, orimur, orerētur, orere.
potitur, potimur, potī, poterēmur, poterentur.

b. On the other hand, *morior*, die, and some compounds of *gradior*, step, though of the third conjugation, have sometimes infinitives in -īrī, like the fourth.

c. The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation sometimes has a form in -ībam, -ībās, etc. Thus: *scībam*, from *scīre*, to know.

d. The future in the fourth conjugation often has in early Latin a form in -ībō, -ībīs, etc. Thus: *scībō*.

e. The second person singular of the present imperative active

has no final -e in the following four verbs : *dīcō*, say ; *dūcō*, lead ; *ferō*, bring ; *faciō*, do or make. Thus : *dīc*, *dūc*, *fer*, *fac*. So also their compounds, except the compounds of *faciō* with a preposition ; as, *cōnfice*, from *cōnficiō*.

Sciō has no present imperative ; nor do *cupe* and *polle* occur, from *cupiō* and *polleō*.

f. The active forms of the future imperative occur instead of the passive in the early writers and their imitators. This is especially common in deponent verbs. An ancient form in -*minō* is found in the second and third persons singular of the present imperative of several deponents ; * as, *antestāminō*, let him summon as a witness ; *tū prōgrediminō*, you go ahead.

g. In the third and fourth conjugations the gerund and gerundive often retain the earlier endings -*undum* and -*undus* instead of -*endum* and -*endus*, especially if *i* precedes. *Potivundus* is the regular form. *Īre*, to go, has always *eundum* (see 248).

228. Among the tenses formed from the perfect stem the following points require notice : —

a. When the perfect stem ends in *v*-, the *v* is often dropped, and the vowels thus brought together are contracted in the forms made upon the pattern of the fourth conjugation, if *s* follows, and in the forms of other conjugations, if *s* or *r* follows ; as : —

audīsem	for	audīvissem
amāstī	“	amāvistī
implērunt	“	implēvērunt
nōram	“	nōveram
nōsse	“	nōvisse
cōnsuēsse	“	cōnsuēvisse

b. When the perfect stem ends in *iv*-, the *v* is sometimes dropped without contraction ; as : —

audiisse	for	audīvisse
petiērunt	“	petivērunt

* This form occurs once from a passive verb, *dēnūntiāminō* (3d pers. sing.), let it be proclaimed.

c. When the perfect stem ends in *s-* or *x-*, shorter forms occur without the penultimate syllables *-is-*, *-iss-*, or *-sis-*. Thus: *ēvāstī*, *exstīnxtī*, *surrēxe*, *accēstis*, *dīxtī*, *exstīnxem*, beside *ēvāsistī*, *exstīnxistī*, *surrēxisse*, *accēssistis*, *dīxistī*, *exstīnxissem*.*

d. Ancient forms of a future perfect in *-sō*, and of a perfect subjunctive in *-sim*, formed from the present stem, sometimes occur; as, *capsō*, *faxō*, *habēssō*, *iūssō*, *levāssō*, *receptō*; *ausim*, *cōnfexim*, *dīxis*, *ēmīssim*, *faxim*, *licēssit*, *locāssim*. So also the pluperfect subjunctive *faxem*.

e. A future passive of similar form occurs rarely in ancient Latin; as, *turbāssitur*, *iussitur*; and a future infinitive active of the first conjugation in *-sere*; as, *expūgnāssere*, *impetrāssere*.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS.

229. (1.) The *future participle* joined with the forms of *sum* makes what is called the ACTIVE periphrastic conjugation. Thus:—

amātūrus sum, I am on the point of loving, am destined or intend to love, *etc.*

amātūrus eram, *erō*, *fuī*, *etc.*

a. *Fuerō* is hardly so used.

(2.) The *gerundive* with the forms of *sum* makes what is called the PASSIVE periphrastic conjugation—denoting what *must* or *ought to be* done. Thus:—

amandus sum, I must be loved, or ought to be loved.

amandus eram, *erō*, *fuī*, *etc.*

(3.) The *perfect participle* with the parts of *sum* has sometimes a quasi-adjective force. Thus, forms like *amātus sum*, *amātus essem*, *etc.*, may be simply the passive tenses of completed action, or the verb *sum* may have its regular time and the participle be, as suggested, a kind of adjective.

* Some of these were perhaps formed from the present stem like the forms treated in *d*, others seem to have come from the regular forms.

a. The distinctions of meaning here involved can perhaps best be made plain by a scheme like the following : —

occīsus est may be equivalent to	{	Hist. Perf. <i>He was killed.</i> Perf. Def. <i>He has been killed.</i> Adjec. & Verb, <i>He is dead.</i>
pūniuntur malī can only mean	{	<i>The wicked are suffering punishment, or Men punish the wicked (always or when they are caught).</i>
amātus fuī may mean	{	<i>I was loved (fuī, Hist. Perf.)</i> <i>I have been loved (fuī, Perf. Def.)</i>

b. On the other hand, the English present passive is expressed in Latin (1) by the present only when it denotes continued or customary action; as, *faenum secātur*, they are cutting hay; *faenum aestate secātur*, hay is cut in summer; (2) by the perfect when it denotes a state; as, *faenum sectum est*, the hay is cut; *volnus cūrātum est*, the wound is dressed.

Stem-Formation in Third Conjugation.

230. The verbs of the third conjugation may be classified with regard to their present stems as follows* : —

a. Present stem is the root (which serves also as the verb stem) + the thematic vowel. Thus : —

regere	✓reg
petere	✓pet

b. The first consonant of the root is prefixed with i (reduplication). This class contains very few verbs. Thus : —

gignere	✓gen (or in weaker form ✓gn)
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c. Present stem takes t; as : —

flectere	✓flec
----------	-------

* These formations are remnants of the verb forms inherited by the Latin from Indo-European, and were there originally produced by formative suffixes; but of course no thorough discussion of them can be given in a school grammar.

d. Present stem takes n. Thus:—

(1) n simply added to roots in r- (also two vowel roots);

as:—

spernere	√sper
linere	√li
sinere	√si

(2) n added to roots in l and assimilated; as:—

pellere (<i>for pelnere</i>)	√pel
fallere (<i>for falnere</i>)	√fal

(3) n inserted before a final mute (palatal or dental); as:—

findere	√fid
tangere	√tag

(4) n changed to m before a labial mute; as:—

rumpere	√rup
---------	------

e. Present stem takes sc-; as:—

pāscere	√pa
crēscere	√cre

f. Present stem takes i-; * as:—

capiō, capere	√cap
faciō, facere	√fac

NOTE 1. These verbs in -iō occupy a sort of midway position between the consonant stems of the third conjugation and the verbs of the fourth conjugation, as can be seen by comparing the following verbs:—

legō	legere	lēgī	lēctus
capiō	capere	cēpī	captus
cupiō	cupere	cupīvī	cupītus
veniō	venīre	vēnī	ventum

And *pariō, parere*, beside *reperiō, reperire*.

NOTE 2. A few verbs show more than one of the formations described. Thus: *discō* (for *di-dc-scō, √dec*), learn, belongs to the reduplicated class and to the sc- class.

NOTE 3. In some verbs the strengthened forms extend further than the present stem and sometimes through the entire verb, as in *iungō, iungere, iūnxī, iūnctum, viug*, and in most of the t- class except *mittō*.

* This i disappears before another i and before e, unless two consonants follow, as in the present participle, the gerund and gerundive. (Cf. the paradigm above.)

231. The perfect stem in the third conjugation is formed in the following ways :—

a. The perfect stem is *generally* the same as the present stem when the present stem ends in *u-* or in *nd-*. Thus :—

Verb.	Pres. Stem.	Perf. Stem.
tribuō	tribu-	tribu-
scandō	scand-	scand-

b. The perfect stem adds *s* to the root :—

(1) In most verbs with a long vowel in the root syllable. Thus :—

fīgō	fīg-	fīx-
lūdō	lūd-	lūs-
cēdō	cēd-	cēss-
dīcō	dīc-	dīx-
sūmō	sūm-	sūmps-

(2) In most verbs with the stem syllable long by position (except those in *nd-*). Thus :—

carpō	carp-	carps-
fingō	fing-	fīnx-

(3) In a few other verbs. Thus :—

coquō	coqu-	cox-
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NOTE. Some (mostly roots ending in a middle mute—*g, d, b*) also lengthen the root vowel ; as, *regō, rēxi, fluō, flūxi* (✓ *flug*), *fingō, fīnxi*.

c. The stem vowel is lengthened in many verbs with a single short vowel before a single consonant in the root syllable, *a* becoming *e*, except before *b* and *v*. Thus :—

emō	em-	ēm-
fodiō	fod-	fōd-
fugiō	fug-	fūg-
legō	leg-	lēg-
agō	ag-	ēg-
capiō	cap-	cēp-
scabō	scab-	scāb-
lavō	lav-	lāv-

And in *vincō* *vinc-* *vīc-*

d. The following verbs form the perfect stem by reduplication.

The initial consonant and vowel are prefixed to the root, but if the root vowel is *a*, it is weakened to *i* (to *e* in *fallō*, *parcō*, and *pariō*); if *ae*, to *ī*; and if *e* or *o* before *l*, to *u*. When the root vowel is thus weakened, the vowel of reduplication is always *e*. Thus:—

cadō	cad-	cecid-
caedō	caed-	cecīd-
canō	can-	cecin-
currō	curr-	cucurr-
dīscō	dīsc-	didic-
fallō	fall-	fefell-
[pagō]	pag-	pepig-
parcō	parc-	peperc-
pariō	par-	peper-
pēdō	pēd-	pepēd-
pellō	pell-	pepul-
pendō	pend-	pepend-
pōscō	pōsc-	popōsc-
pungō	pung-	pupug-
sistō	sist-*	stit-
tangō	tang-	tetig-
tendō	tend-	tetend-
tollō	toll-	tetul- (<i>rare</i>)
tundō	tund-	tutud-

Findō and *scindō* have dropped the reduplication, making *fidi* and *scidī*. *Sciscidi* also occurs.

(1) For convenience the few verbs of other conjugations which have reduplicated perfects are here given:—

dō	dare	dedī
stō	stāre	stetī †
mordeō	mordēre	momordī
pendeō	pendēre	pependī
spondeō	spondēre	sponpondī †
tondeō	tondēre	totondī

* The *si* of the present stem is also reduplication. It will be seen that in the perfect the stem syllable loses its *s*: *stīti* for *stīstī*.

† It will be seen that the stem syllable loses its first consonant (*s*) when two consonants are prefixed in reduplication.

(2) Simple reduplicated perfects have the first two syllables short, except *cecīdi* and *pepēdi*.

(3) Compounds usually drop the reduplication, but it is retained in the compounds of *dō*, *stō*, *dīscō*, *pōscō*, and sometimes *currō*.* Thus: —

dēdō	dēdidī †
cōnstō	cōnstitī †
circumstō	circumstetī
perdiscō	perdidicī
expōscō	expopōsci
dēcurreō	dēcucurrī or dēcurreī

232. The perfect participle stem ends in *so-* instead of *to-* in the following cases: —

a. When the present stem ends in a dental mute. A short vowel before the ending is then generally lengthened, the mute being dropped. Thus: —

cadō	cad-	cāso-
rādō	rād-	rāso-
fundō	fund-	fūso-

Sometimes assimilation occurs (cf. 65). Thus: —

fodiō	fod-	fōsso-
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b. When the present stem adds *t*. Thus: —

flectō	flec-t-	flexo-
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c. Several stems in *l* or *r*. Thus: —

fallō	fall-	falso-
currō	curr-	curso-
So also lābor	lāb-	lāpso-

d. Palatal stems which drop the palatal before *s* in the perfect. The palatal is also dropped in the participle. Thus: —

spargō	spārsī	spārsus
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* *Abscondō* has oftener *abscondī* than *abscondidī*.

† The penultimate vowel is thus weakened in compounds of these two verbs with monosyllabic prepositions.

Irregular Stem-Formation.

233. The following list contains the common verbs of the FIRST conjugation which form their perfect or perfect participle, or both, irregularly: —

crepō	crepāre	crepuī	crepitum,* <i>make a noise.</i>
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Discrepō has also a regular perfect; *inrepō* has regular forms and also *inrepuī*, *inreputum*.

cubō	cubāre	cubuī	cubitum, <i>lie down.</i>
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Perf. subj. *cubāris* and perf. infin. *cubāsse* occur. See also under 235, v.

dō	dare	dedī	datus, <i>give.</i> †
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domō	domāre	domuī	domitus, <i>tame.</i>
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fricō	fricāre	fricuī	frictus and fricātus, <i>rub.</i>
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iuvō	iuvāre	iūvī	iūtus, <i>help.</i>
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Also *iuvātūrus*.

micō	micāre	micuī	—— <i>glitter.</i>
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Dimicō, fight, has also the regular forms, and *ēmicātūrus* occurs.

necō	necāre	necāvī or necuī	necātus, <i>kill.</i>
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Ēnecō has also *ēnectus*.

plicō	plicāre	——	plicātus or plicitus, <i>fold.</i>
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Implicō and *explicō* have regular forms and also *-plicuī*, *-plicitus*. So also *applicō* and *complicō*, except that *complicāvī* is not found. The other compounds are regular.

pōtō	pōtāre	pōtāvī	pōtātus or pōtus,‡ <i>drink.</i>
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secō	secāre	secuī	sectus, <i>cut</i> , <i>secātūrus</i> .
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sonō	sonāre	sonuī	—— <i>sound.</i>
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Some compounds have *-sonātūrus*, and *resonō* has *resonāvī*.

stō	stāre	stetī	—— <i>stand</i> , <i>stātūrus</i> .
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tonō	tonāre	tonuī	—— <i>thunder.</i>
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Attonō has also *attonitus*, *intonō* has *intonātus*.

vetō	vetāre	vetuī	vetitus, <i>forbid.</i>
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* The neuter form of the participle is given when the verb is intransitive.

† Strictly speaking, *dare* does not belong to any of the conjugations, but it is usually reckoned as of the first because of its ending *-are*. (Cf. 240, 1.)

‡ *Pōtus* is really the participle of the simple verb of which *pōtō* is a frequentative, and often has the active meaning, *having drunk*.

234. The following list contains the common verbs of the SECOND conjugation which form their perfect or perfect participle, or both, otherwise than in -uī and -itus: * —

a. ab-oleō	abolēvī	abolitus, <i>efface.</i>
dē-leō	dēlēvī	dēlētus, <i>blot out, destroy.</i>
fleō	flēvī	flētus, <i>weep.</i>
neō	nēvī	nētus, <i>spin.</i>
-pleō †	-plēvī †	-plētus, † <i>fill.</i>
b. algeō	alsī	—— <i>be cold.</i>
ārdeō	ārsī	ārsum, <i>be on fire.</i>
audeō	ausus sum	ausus, <i>dare.</i>
augeō	auxī	auctus, <i>increase.</i>
caveō	cāvī	cautus, <i>beware.</i>
cēnseō	cēnsuī	cēnsus, <i>think.</i>
cieō	cīvī	citus (<i>particip. adj.</i>), <i>call.</i>

Among compounds occur *excitus* and *concitus*, but *accitus*.

doceō	docuī	doctus, <i>teach.</i>
fateor	fassus sum	fassus, <i>confess.</i>
faveō	fāvī	fautum, <i>favor.</i>
ferveō	ferbuī	—— <i>boil.</i> (Cf. 235.)

Fervō, fervere, fervī, also occurs. (Cf. 235, i.)

foveō	fōvī	fōtus, <i>cherish.</i>
fulgeō	fūlsī	—— <i>shine, gleam.</i>
gaudeō	gāvīsus sum	gāvīsus, <i>rejoice.</i>
haereō	haesī	haesum, <i>stick.</i>
in-dulgeō	indūlsī	indūltus, <i>indulge.</i>
iubeō	iūssī	iūssus, <i>bid, order.</i>
lūceō	lūxī	—— <i>shine, be light.</i>

Pollūceō has *pollūctum*.

lūgeō	lūxī	—— <i>mourn.</i>
maneō	mānsī	mānsus, <i>stay, wait for.</i>
mīsceō	mīscuī	{ mīstus, } <i>mix.</i> { mīxtus, }
mordeō	momordī	mōrsus, <i>bite.</i>
moveō	mōvī	mōtus, <i>move.</i>
mulceō	mulsī	mulsus, <i>soothe.</i>

Permulctus occurs.

* But see 231, d, 1.

† In compounds.

mulgeō	mūlsī	mūlsus, <i>milk</i> .
paveō	pāvī	— <i>fear</i> .
prandeō	prandī	prānsus (<i>act. meaning</i>), <i>breakfast, lunch</i> .
reor	ratus sum	ratus, <i>think</i> .
rideō	rīsī	rīsum, <i>laugh</i> .
sedeō	sēdī	sēssum, <i>sit</i> .
sorbeō	sorbuī	— <i>suck in</i> .
<i>Absorbeō has absorpsī.</i>		
strīdeō	strīdī	— <i>whiz</i> . (Cf. 235, i.)
suādeō	suāsī	suāsum, <i>advise</i> .
teneō	tenuī	tentus, <i>hold</i> .
tergeō	tērsī	tērsus, <i>wipe</i> .
torqueō	torsī	tortus, <i>twist</i> .
torreō	torruī	tōstus, <i>roast</i> .
turgeō	tūrsī	— <i>swell</i> . (Cf. 235, ii.)
urgeō (urgueō)	ūrsī	— <i>urge</i> .
videō	vīdī	vīsus, <i>see</i> .
voveō	vōvī	vōtus, <i>vow</i> .

235. The following list contains the common verbs of the THIRD conjugation, arranged according to the formation of the perfect stem as given in 231: —

i. Perfect stem like present stem.

acuō	acuī	acūtus, <i>sharpen</i> .
arguō	arguī	argūtus (<i>particip. adj.</i>), <i>accuse, convict</i> .
bibō	bibī	bibitus, <i>drink</i> .
capessō	{ capessī and capessīvī }	— <i>undertake</i> . (See vi., below.)
-cendō *	-cendī *	-cēnsus, * <i>kindle</i> .
congruō	congruī	— <i>agree</i> .
cūdo	—	— <i>forge</i> .

This verb has no perfect and perfect participle, but the compounds have -cūdi, -cūsus.

* In compounds.

dēgō (dē-agō)	dēgī	—— <i>pass one's time.</i>
ex-uō,	exuī	exūtus, <i>take off.</i>
facesso	facessī	facessītus, <i>execute.</i>
fidō	fīsus sum,	fīsus, <i>trust.</i>

Cōnfidō has sometimes *cōnfīdī*.

-fendō *	-fendī *	-fēnsus,* <i>ward off.</i>
fervō	fervī	—— <i>boil.</i> (Cf. 234.)
icō	icī	ictus, <i>strike.</i>
im-buō	imbui	imbūtus, <i>wet, imbue.</i>
in-duō	induī	indūtus, <i>put on.</i>
ingruō	ingruī	—— <i>rush upon.</i>
lambō	lambī	—— <i>lick.</i>
luō	lui	—— <i>wash, luitūrus.</i>

Some compounds have *-lūtus*.

mandō	mandī	mānsus, <i>chew.</i>
metuō	metuī	metūtus, <i>fear.</i>
minuō	minuī	minūtus, <i>lessen.</i>
-nuō *	-nuī *	-nūtus,* <i>nod.</i>
pandō	pandī	{ pānsus, } <i>open.</i> { pāssus, }
pīnsō	pīnsī and pīnsuī	{ pīnsitus, } { pīnsus, } <i>pound.</i> { pīstus, }
pluō	plui or plūvī	—— <i>rain.</i>
pre-hendō (prēndō)	prehendī (prēndī)	prehēnsus (prēnsus), <i>seize.</i>
ruō	ruī	rutus (<i>part. adj.</i>), <i>fall,</i> ruitūrus.
scandō	scandī	scānsus, <i>climb.</i>
sīdō	sīdī	—— <i>settle.</i>

Compounds have *sēdī*, *sēssum*, from *sedeō*.

solvō	solvī	solūtus, <i>loose.</i>
statuō	statuī	statūtus, <i>place, fix, deter-</i> <i>mine.</i>
sternuō	sternuī	—— <i>sneeze.</i>
stridō	stridī	—— <i>whiz.</i> (Cf. 234.)

* In compounds.

suō	suī	sūtus, <i>sew</i> .
tribuō	tribuī	tribūtus, <i>assign, ascribe</i> .
vellō	vellī and volsī	volsus, <i>pluck</i> . (See ii., below.)
verrō	verri	versus, <i>brush, sweep</i> .
vertō	vertī	versus, <i>turn</i> .
vīsō	vīsī	vīsus, <i>see, visit</i> .
volvō	volvī	volūtus, <i>roll</i> .

ii. Perfect stem adds s.

carpō	carpsī	carptus, <i>pluck</i> .
cēdō	cēssī	cēssum, <i>yield</i> .
cīngō	cīnxī	cīnctus, <i>gird</i> .
claudō	clausī	clausus, <i>shut</i> .
clepō	clepsī	cleptus, <i>steal</i> .
cōmō (com-emō)	cōmpsī	cōmptus, <i>comb, deck</i> .
coquō	coxī	coctus, <i>cook</i> .
dēmō (dē-emō)	dēmpsī	dēmptus, <i>take away</i> .
dīcō	dīxī	dictus, <i>say</i> .
dī-vidō	dīvisī	dīvisus, <i>divide</i> .
dūcō	dūxī	ductus, <i>lead, guide</i> .
fīgō	fixī	fixus, <i>fix</i> .
fīngō	fīnxī	fictus, <i>fashion, feign</i> .
flectō	flexī	flexus, <i>bend</i> .
flīgō	flīxī	flīctus, <i>dash</i> .
fluō	flūxī	flūxus (<i>part. adj.</i>), <i>flow</i> .
frendō	—	{ frēssus, } <i>gnash</i> . { frēsus, }

Compounds have also *frēsī*.

frīgō	frīxī	{ frīctus, } <i>freeze</i> . { frīxus, }
gerō	gessī	gestus, <i>carry</i> .
-laciō *	-lexī * †	-lectus, * † <i>allure</i> .
iungō	iūnxī	iūnctus, <i>join</i> .

* In compounds.

† The perfects *adlicuī*, *ēlicuī*, *perlicuī*, and the participle *ēlicitus*, also occur.

laedō	laesī	laesus, <i>hurt.</i>
lingō	linxi	linctus, <i>lick.</i>
lūdō	lūsī	lūsus, <i>play.</i>
mergō	mērsī	mērsus, <i>dip.</i>
mingo	mīnxi	mīctum, <i>make water.</i>
mītto	mīsī	mīssus, <i>send.</i>
necto	nexī (nexuī)	nexus, <i>weave.</i>
ningo	nīnxi	— <i>snow.</i>
nūbō	nūpsī	nūptum, <i>marry.</i>
pangō	{ pānxi } { pēgī } { pepigī }	pāctus, <i>drive in</i> , pānc- turus. (See iv. and v., below.)
pecto	pexī (pexuī)	{ pexus, } <i>comb.</i> { pectitus, }
pingō	pinxi	pictus, <i>paint.</i>
plangō	plānxi	plāctus, <i>beat, lament.</i>
plaudō	plausī	plausus, <i>clap the hands.</i>
plectō	plexī (plexuī)	plexus, <i>twine.</i>
premo	pressī	pressus, <i>press.</i>
prōmō (pro-emō)	prōmpsī	prōmptus, <i>bring out.</i>
quatiō	-cussī *	quassus, <i>shake.</i>
rādō	rāsī	rāsus, <i>scrape, shave.</i>
regō	rēxi	rēctus, <i>rule.</i>
rēpō	rēpsī	rēptum, <i>creep.</i>
rōdō	rōsī	rōsus, <i>gnaw.</i>
sarpō	sarpsī	sarptus, <i>prune.</i>
scalpō	scalpsī	scalptus, <i>scrape, engrave.</i>
scribō	scripsī	scriptus, <i>write.</i>
sculpō	sculpsī	sculptus, <i>carve.</i>
serpō	serpsī	— <i>crawl.</i>
spargō	spārsī	spārsus, <i>spread, scatter.</i>
speciō	spexī	-spectus, * <i>see, look at.</i>
stinguō	-stīnxi *	-stīnctus, * <i>quench.</i>
stringō	strīnxi	strictus, <i>bind, graze.</i>
struō	strūxi	strūctus, <i>build.</i>

* In compounds.

sūgō	sūxī	sūctus, <i>suck</i> .
sūmō (sub-emō)	sūmpsi	sūmptus, <i>take</i> .
tegō	tēxī	tēctus, <i>cover</i> .
temnō	-tempsi *	-temptus, * <i>despise</i> .
tergō	tērsī	tērsus, <i>wipe</i> . (Cf. 234.)
tingō (tinguō)	tīnxī	tīnctus, <i>moisten, stain</i> .
trahō	trāxī	trāctus, <i>draw</i> .
trūdō	trūsī	trūsus, <i>thrust</i> .
ungō (unguō)	ūnxī	ūnctus, <i>anoint</i> .
ūrō	ūssi	ūstus, <i>burn (transitive)</i> .
vādō	-vāsi *	vāsum, <i>go</i> .
veho	vexī	vectus, <i>draw, carry</i> .
vellō	volsī and velli	volsus, <i>pluck</i> . (See i., above.)
vivō	vixī	victum, <i>live</i> .

iii. Perfect lengthens root vowel.

agō	ēgi	āctus, <i>drive</i> .
capiō	cēpi	captus, <i>take</i> .
edō	ēdi	ēsus, <i>eat</i> .
emō	ēmī	emptus, <i>take, buy</i> .
faciō	fēcī	factus, <i>do, make</i> .
fodiō	fōdī	fōssus, <i>dig</i> .
frangō	frēgi	frāctus, <i>break</i> .
fugiō	fūgi	fugitum, <i>flee</i> .
fundō	fūdī	fūsus, <i>pour</i> .
iaciō	iēcī	iactus, <i>cast, throw</i> .
lavō	lāvī	{ lautus, } <i>wash</i> .
		{ lōtus, }

Also *lavāre, lavāvi, lavātus*.

legō	lēgi	lēctus, <i>gather, read</i> .
linquō	līqui	-lictus, * <i>leave</i> .
rumpō	rūpi	ruptus, <i>break, burst</i> .
scabō	scābi	— <i>scratch</i> .
vincō	vīci	victus, <i>conquer</i> .

* In compounds.



iv. Reduplicated perfects.

cadō	cecidī	cāsum, <i>fall.</i>
caedō	cecīdī	caesus, <i>cut.</i>
canō	cecinī	cantus, <i>sing.</i>
currō	cucurrī	cursum, <i>run.</i>
discō	didicī	— <i>learn, discitūrus.</i>
fallō	fefelli	falsus, <i>deceive.</i>
pangō	pepigī	pāctus, <i>drive in.</i> (See ii., above, and vi., below.)
parcō	peperci (parsī)	parcitum (parsum), <i>spare.</i>
pariō	peperi	partus, <i>bring forth, pari-</i> <i>tūrus.</i>
pellō	pepulī	pulsus, <i>drive.</i>
pendō	pependī	pēnsus, <i>weigh.</i>
pōscō	popōscī	— <i>demand.</i>
pungō	pupugī	pūctus, <i>prick.</i>
sistō	stitī	status (<i>part. adj.</i>), <i>set.</i>
tangō	tetigī	tāctus, <i>touch.</i>
tendō	tetendī	tentus or tēnsus, <i>stretch.</i>
tundō	tutudī	tūnsus or tūsus, <i>beat.</i>

v. Perfect stem adds *v* (*u*) to the root, after the analogy of the second conjugation.

alō	aluī	altus or alitus, <i>nourish.</i>
cellō	-celluī *	-celsus, * <i>push.</i>
cernō	crēvī	crētus, <i>decree.</i>
colō	coluī	cultus, <i>till.</i>
com-pēscō,	compēscuī	— <i>restrain.</i>
cōn-sulō,	cōnsuluī	cōnsultus, <i>consult.</i>
crēscō	crēvī	crētus, <i>grow.</i>
-cumbō *	-cubuī *	-cubitum, * <i>lie down.</i>
depsō	depsuī	depstus, <i>knead.</i>
fremo	fremuī	fremitus, <i>roar.</i>
[furo] †	furuī	— <i>rage.</i>
gemō	gemuī	gemitum, <i>groan.</i>

* In compounds.

† First person singular not found.

gignō	genuī	genitus, <i>beget.</i>
linō	lēvī or livī	litus, <i>smear.</i>
metō	messuī	messus, <i>reap.</i>
molō	moluī	molitus, <i>grind.</i>
nōscō	nōvī	nōtus, <i>learn, find out.</i>
oc-culō	occuluī	occultus, <i>hide.</i>
olō	oluī	— <i>smell.</i>
pangō	pēgī	pāctus, <i>drive in.</i> (See ii. and iv., above.)
pāscō	pāvī	pāstus, <i>feed.</i>
pōnō (po-sinō)	posuī	positus, <i>put, place.</i>
rapiō	rapuī	raptus, <i>seize.</i>
scīscō	scīvī	scītus, <i>decree.</i>
serō	sēvī	satus, <i>sow.</i>
serō	seruī	sertus, <i>entwine.</i>
sinō	sīvī	situs, <i>lay down, allow.</i>
spernō	sprēvī	sprētus, <i>scorn.</i>
sternō	strāvī	strātus, <i>strew.</i>
stertō	stertuī	— <i>snore.</i>
strepō	strepuī	strepitum, <i>sound.</i>
texō	texuī	textus, <i>weave.</i>
tremō	tremuī	— <i>tremble.</i>
vomō	vomuī	vomitus, <i>vomit.</i>
volō (velle)	voluī	— <i>wish.</i> (Cf. 242.)

Here may also be given *cōnsuēscō*, *cōnsuēvī* (*cōnsuētus*, adj.), accustom one's self. So other compounds, and *quiēscō*, *quiēvī*, *quiētūm*, rest.

vi. Perfect stems add *iv* to the root, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.

arcessō	arcessīvī	arcessītus, <i>summon.</i>
capessō	capessīvī	— <i>undertake.</i> (See i., above.)
cupiō	cupīvī	cupītus, <i>desire.</i>
incessō	incessīvī or incēssī	— <i>attack.</i>
laccessō	laccessīvī	laccessītus, <i>provoke.</i>
petō	petīvī	petītus, <i>aim at.</i>
quaerō	quaesīvī	quaesītus, <i>ask, seek.</i>

rŭdō	rŭdivī	rŭditum, <i>bray.</i>
sapiō	sapivī	—— <i>be wise.</i>

Compounds have also *-sipi* in perfect.

terō	trivī	tritus, <i>rub, wear.</i>
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vii. No perfect or perfect participle stems.

angō, <i>choke.</i>	glŭbō, <i>peel.</i>
claudō, <i>limp.</i>	hiscō, <i>gape open.</i>
fatiscō, <i>crack open.</i>	plector,* <i>be punished.</i>
fulgō, <i>shine.</i>	tollō,† <i>raise.</i>
gliscō, <i>grow.</i>	vergō, <i>incline.</i>

236. The following list contains the common simple DEPONENTS of the third conjugation : —

am-plector	am-plexus, <i>embrace.</i>
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And other compounds.

apiscor	aptus, <i>get.</i>
com-miniscor	commentus, <i>invent.</i>

And other compounds.

ex-pērgiscor	experrēctus, <i>awake.</i>
fruor	fructus, <i>enjoy, fruitūrus.</i>
fungor	fūctus, <i>perform.</i>
gradior	gressus, <i>walk.</i>
irāscor	irātus, <i>be angry.</i>
lābor	lāpsus, <i>fall, slip.</i>
līquor	—— <i>melt.</i>
loquor	locūtus, <i>speak.</i>
morior ‡	mortuus, <i>die, moritūrus.</i>
nanciscor	nactus or nactus, <i>get.</i>
nāscor	nātus, <i>be born, nāscitūrus.</i>
nītor	nīsus or nīsus, <i>lean upon.</i>
ob-liviscor	oblītus, <i>forget.</i>
paciscor	pactus, <i>bargain.</i>
patior	passus, <i>suffer.</i>
pro-ficiscor	profectus, <i>start.</i>
queror	questus, <i>complain.</i>

* Only post classical in the active.

† Perf. and perf. part. supplied by the compound forms *sūstulī, sublātus.*

‡ For irregular forms in this verb see 227, b.

ringor	rictus, <i>snarl</i> .
sequor	secutus, <i>follow</i> .
tuor	tuitus, <i>guard</i> .
Also tueor, tuērī.	
ulciscor	ultus, <i>avenge</i> .
utor	usus, <i>use</i> .
vescor	— <i>eat</i> .

Re-vertor, *reversus*, return, and other compounds of *vertō*, are generally deponent only in the forms from the present stem and in the perfect participle.

237. Except those given in 235 and 236, the verbs whose present stem ends in *sc* have no perfect and perfect participle stems, or else take those of their primitives; as, *adhaerescō*, *adhaesi*, *adhaesum*. When derived from nouns or adjectives they form their perfect stem (in the few cases in which they have any) regularly; those in *-āscō* having *āv-*, and those in *-escō* having *u-*, after the analogy of the first and second conjugations; as, *vesperāscit*, *vesperāvit*; *dūrēscō*, *dūruī*.

a. The quantity of the vowel before *sc* in inceptive verbs is always long, except in the few cases of verbs derived from consonant stems of the third conjugation. Thus:—

Inveterāscō, *adsuēscō*, *crēscō*, *dīscō*, *scīscō*, etc.

Short are —

Coalescō, *gemiscō*, *ingemiscō*, *tremescō*, *contremiscō*, *vīvescō*, *revīvescō*, *adipiscor*, *indipiscor*, *dēpeciscor*, *expērgiscor*, *nanciscor*, *paciscor*, *proficiscor*, *reminiscor*, *ulciscor*.

238. The following list contains the common verbs of the FOURTH conjugation, which form the perfect or perfect participle stem, or both, irregularly:—

amiciō	{ amicuī amixī }	amictus, <i>clothe</i> .
a-periō	aperuī	apertus, <i>open</i> .
ad-sentior	adsēnsus sum	adsēnsus, <i>assent</i> .
com-periō	comperi	compertus, <i>find</i> .

eō	ivī	itum, <i>go.</i>
ex-perior	expertus sum	expertus, <i>try.</i>
farcio	farsī	{ fartus, } { farctus, } <i>stuff.</i>
fulcio	fulsī	fultus, <i>prop up.</i>
haurio	hausī	haustus, <i>draw</i> , hausūrus.
mētiō	mēnsus sum	{ mēnsus, } { mēntitus, } <i>measure.</i>
operio	operuī	opertus, <i>cover.</i>
op-perior	oppertus sum	{ oppertus, } { opperitus, } <i>wait for.</i>
ōrdior	ōrsus sum	ōrsus, <i>begin.</i>
orior *	ortus sum	ortus, <i>rise</i> , oritūrus.
queo	quīvī	quītus, <i>can.</i>
raucio	—	rausum, <i>be hoarse.</i>
re-perio	repperī	repertus, <i>find.</i>
saepio	saepsī	saeptus, <i>hedge in.</i>
saliō	{ saluī } { salivī } { saliī }	— <i>leap.</i>
sancio	sanxī	{ sancītus, } { sanctus, } <i>ratify.</i>
sarcio	sarsī	sartus, <i>patch.</i>
sarrio	{ sarrivī } { sarruī }	sarrītus, <i>hoe.</i>
sentio	sēnsī	sēnsus, <i>feel.</i>
sepelio	sepelivī	sepultus, <i>bury.</i>
venio	vēnī	ventum, <i>come.</i>
vincio	vinxī	vinctus, <i>bind.</i>

IRREGULAR VERBS (*Verba anōmala*).

239. A few verbs take no thematic vowel in their present stems, but add the endings directly to the root, and are therefore called **UNTHEMATIC** verbs, or, because these forms differ from those of the regular conjugations, **IRREGULAR** verbs.

* See 227, a.

240. (1.) Originally all verbs with vowel roots were unthematic, but all except *dāre*, to give, passed over into the thematic conjugation.*

(2.) Several verbs with consonant roots remained unthematic in most of the forms from the present stem. They are *esse*, be; *velle*, wish; *nōlle*, be unwilling; *mālle*, prefer; *ferre*, bring; *fieri*, become; *edere*, eat.

The unthematic verbs are conjugated as follows:—

241. dare, to give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.	PRES. INFIN.	PERF. INDIC.	PERF. PART.
dō †	dāre	dēdi	dātus

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.	FUTURE.
dō †	dabam	dabō
dās	dabās	dabis
dat	dabat	dabit
damus	dabāmus	dabimus
datis	dabātis	dabitis
dant	dabant	dabunt
PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.	FUTURE PERF.
dēdi, etc.	dēderam, etc.	dēderō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.		IMPERFECT.	
dem	dēmus	darem	daremus
dēs	dētis	darēs	darētis
det	dent	daret	darent
PERFECT.		PLUPERFECT.	
dederim, etc.		dedissem, etc.	

* Such are *fārī*, speak; *flāre*, blow; *nāre*, swim; *stāre*, stand; *flēre*, weep; *nēre*, spin; *-plēre*, fill (used only in compounds); *cīre*, call; *īre*, go; *quīre*, be able; *scīre*, know. (Cf. also 230, d, 1.)

† This form is, of course, thematic.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.		FUTURE.	
dā *	date	datō	datōte
		datō	dantō

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.	FUTURE.
dare	dedisse	datūrus (-a, -um) esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. dāns, dantis	Fut. datūrus (-a, -um)
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GERUND.	SUPINE.
dandī, etc.	datum, datū

a. The passive is regular, except that the first person of the present indicative and subjunctive do not occur.

b. Thus are conjugated the four-syllabled compounds, as *circumdare*, *vēnumdare*, etc. The three-syllabled compounds — *dēdere*, *ēdere*, *prōdere*, *reddere*, *trādere*, *vēndere* — are regular thematic verbs of the third conjugation. So also the following verbs, which are not compounds of *dō*, *dare*, but of another *dō* (corresponding to the Greek τίθημι), which means *put, set*: *abdere*, *addere*, *condere*, *abscondere*, *crēdere*, *indere*, *obdere*, *perdere*, *subdere*.

c. Early forms of the present subjunctive occur as follows: *duās*, *duim*, *duīs*, *duit*, *duint*. So *perduim*, *perduīs*, *perduit*, *perduint*; *crēduam*, *crēduās*, *crēduat*, *crēduīs*, *crēduint*.†

For *esse*, see 215.

242. *velle*, be willing, wish.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.	PRES. INFIN.	PERF. INDIC.
volō	velle	voluī

* This form is, of course, thematic.

† For a few other rare forms, see any large grammar.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

volō	volumus
vīs	voltis (vultis)
volt (vult)	volunt

IMPERFECT.

volēbam, etc.

FUTURE.

volam, etc.

PERFECT.

voluī, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

volueram, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT.

voluerō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

velim	velimus
velis	velitis
velit	velint

IMPERFECT.

vellem	vellēmus
vellēs	vellētis
vellet	vellent

PERFECT.

voluerim, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

voluissem, etc.

INFINITIVES.

 Pres. velle
 Perf. voluisse

PARTICIPLE.

volēns

a. *Sī vīs*, if you please, is often contracted to *sīs*.

243. nōlle (*nē-velle*), be unwilling.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.

nōlō

PRES. INFIN.

nōlle

PERF. INDIC.

nōluī

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

nōlō	nōlumus
nōn vīs	nōn voltis (nōn vultis)
nōn volt (nōn vult)	nōlunt

IMPERFECT.	FUTURE.	PERECT.
nōlēbam, <i>etc.</i>	nōlam, <i>etc.</i>	nōluī, <i>etc.</i>

PLUPERFECT.	FUTURE PERFECT.
nōlueram, <i>etc.</i>	nōluerō, <i>etc.</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.		IMPERFECT.	
nōlim	nōlīmus	nōllem	nōllēmus
nōlīs	nōlītis	nōllēs	nōllētis
nōlit	nōlint	nōllet	nōllent

PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
nōluerim, <i>etc.</i>	nōluissem, <i>etc.</i>

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.		FUTURE.	
nōlī	nōlīte	nōlītō	nōlītōte
		nōlītō	

INFINITIVES.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. nōlle	nōlēns
Perf. nōluisse	

a. *Nēvīs* and *nēvolt* occur in Plautus.

244. *mālle* (*mage-velle*), prefer.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.	PRES. INFIN.	PERF. INDIC.
mālō	mālle	māluī

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.	
mālō	mālumus
māvīs	māvoltis (māvultis)
māvolt (māvult)	mālunt

IMPERFECT.	FUTURE.	PERFECT.
mälēbam, <i>etc.</i>	mālam, <i>etc.</i>	māluī, <i>etc.</i>

PLUPERFECT.	FUTURE PERFECT.
mālueram, <i>etc.</i>	māluerō, <i>etc.</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.		IMPERFECT.	
mālim	mālimus	mällem	mällēmus
mälīs	mälītis	mällēs	mällētis
mālit	mālint	mället	mällent

PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
māluerim, <i>etc.</i>	māluissem, <i>etc.</i>

INFINITIVES.

Pres. mälle
Perf. māluisse

a. Māvolō, māvolunt, māvolet, māvelim, māvelīs, māvelit, māvellem, occur in Plautus.

245. ferre, bring.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. ferō	feror
Pres. Inf. ferre	ferri
Perf. Ind. tulī*	lātus* sum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

ferō	ferimus	feror	ferimur
fers	fertis	ferris (-re)	feriminī
fert	ferunt	fertur	feruntur

* These forms are from other roots: *tulī*, from *vtol*, *tollō*; *lātus*, for *tlātus*, from *vīla*.

Imperfect	ferēbam, <i>etc.</i>	ferēbar, <i>etc.</i>
Future	feram, <i>etc.</i>	ferar, <i>etc.</i>
Perfect	tulī, <i>etc.</i>	lātus sum, <i>etc.</i>
Pluperfect	tuleram, <i>etc.</i>	lātus eram, <i>etc.</i>
Fut. Perf.	tulerō, <i>etc.</i>	lātus erō, <i>etc.</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	feram, <i>etc.</i>	ferar, <i>etc.</i>
Imp.	ferrem, <i>etc.</i>	ferrer, <i>etc.</i>
Perf.	tulerim, <i>etc.</i>	lātus sim, <i>etc.</i>
Plu.	tulissem, <i>etc.</i>	lātus essem, <i>etc.</i>

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

fer	ferte	ferre	ferimini
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FUTURE.

fertō	fertōte	fertor	
fertō	feruntō	fertor	feruntor

INFINITIVES.

Pres.	ferre	ferri
Perf.	tulisse	lātus (-a, -um) esse
Fut.	lātūrus (-a, -um) esse	lātum iri

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	ferēns	
Perf.		lātus (-a, -um)
Future,	lātūrus, -a, -um	

GERUND.

ferendī, *etc.*

GERUNDIVE.

ferendus (-a, -um)

SUPINE.

lātum

lātū

IRREGULAR VERBS.

a. Reduplicated forms from the perfect stem, as *tetuli*, etc., are found in the comic writers.

246. *fierī*, become. (It is also used as the passive of *faciō*, do, make.)

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INDIC.

fiō

PRES. INFIN.

fierī

PERF. INDIC.

factus sum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

fiō

fis

fit

fimus

fitis

fīunt

IMPERFECT.

fiēbam, etc.

FUTURE.

fiam, etc.

PERFECT.

factus sum, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

factus eram, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT.

factus erō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

fiam, etc.

IMPERFECT.

fierem, etc.

PERFECT.

factus sim, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

factus essem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Present *fī*

fite

INFINITIVES.

Pres. *fierī*

Perf. *factus (-a, -um) esse*

Fut. *factum irī*

PARTICIPLE.

factus (-a, -um)

GERUNDIVE.

faciendus (-a, -um)

SUPINE.

factū

a. Compounds of *faciō* which retain the full form have *fīō* in the passive; as, *calefaciō*, *calefīō*; *benefaciō*, *benefīō*. *Cōnfit*, *dēfit*, and *īnfit* also occur, but compounds with prepositions regularly form their own passives; as, *cōnficiō*, *cōnficior*; *perficiō*, *perficior*.

247. *edere*, eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edō

ēsse or edere

ēdī

ēsum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

edō

*ēs or edis **

ēst or edit

edimus

editis or ēstis

edunt

IMPERFECT. FUTURE. PERFECT. PLUPERFECT. FUT. PERF.
edēbam, etc. edam, etc. ēdī, etc. ēderam, etc. ēderō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

edam or edim

edās " edīs

edat " edit

edāmus " edīmus

edātis " editis

edant " edint

IMPERFECT.

ederem or ēssem

ederēs " ēssēs

ederet " ēsset

ederēmus " ēssēmus

ederētis " ēssētis

ederent " ēssent

PERFECT.

ēderim, etc.

PLUPERFECT.

ēdissem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

ēs or ede

edite " ēste

FUTURE.

editō or ēstō

editō " ēstō

editōte " ēstōte

eduntō

* The short forms occur in the same places in which the forms of *sum* begin with *es*.

INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ēsse or edere

Perf. ēdisse

Fut. ēsūrus (-a, -um) esse ēsūrus (-a, -um)

PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind. editur or ēstur

Imp. Subj. ederētur " ēssētur

a. *Ambedō* has participles *ambedēns* and *ambēsus*.

Comedō has *comēsus*, *comēsūrus*, and rare *comēstus*; also, *comedim*, *comedis*, *comedit*.

Adedō and *exedō* have *adēsus* and *exēsus*.

248. *īre*, go (√i), also presents some of the irregularities of unthematic verbs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.

PRES. INFIN.

PERF. IND.

PERF. PART.

eō

īre

īvī (iī)

itum

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

eō

īmus

īs

ītis

it

eunt

IMPERF.

FUT.

PERF.

PLUPERF.

FUT. PERF.

ībam, etc.

ībō, etc.

īvī (iī), etc.

īveram, etc.

īverō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

IMPERF.

PERF.

PLUPERF.

eam, eās, etc.

īrem, etc.

īverim, etc.

īvissem, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

ī

īte

itō

itōte

itō

eunto

INFINITIVES.

Pres. *irē*Perf. *īvisse*Fut. *itūrus (-a, -um) esse*

PARTICIPLES.

*iēns (euntis, etc.)**itūrus (-a, -um)*

GERUND.

eundī, etc.

a. In compounds, future forms in *eam, iēs, iet, etc.*, occasionally occur; and the tenses from the perfect stem more commonly omit the *v*; as, *abiī, redieram, etc.*

b. *Īstis, īssem, and īsse*, occur for *īvistis, īvissem, īvisse*. (Cf. 228, *a.*)

DEFECTIVE VERBS (*Verba dēfectīva*).

249. The following verbs are used in only a few forms, and are therefore called DEFECTIVE VERBS:—

(1.) *ōdī*, hate, though a perfect form, has a present meaning. It occurs in the following forms:—

INDICATIVE.

Perf. *ōdī or ōsus sum, I hate, etc.*Plup. *ōderam, I hated, etc.*Fut. Perf. *ōderō, I shall hate, etc.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf. *ōderim, etc.*Plup. *ōdissem, etc.*

INFINITIVES.

Perf. *ōdisse*Fut. *ōsūrus (-a, -um) esse*

PARTICIPLES.

*ōsus (-a, -um) (active sense)**ōsūrus (-a, -um)*

a. *Odīvīt* occurs (M. Antōn. in Cic., *Phil.*, xiii., §42).

(2.) *meminī*, remember, is also a perfect form with a present meaning, and has —

INDICATIVE.

Perf. *meminī, I remember, etc.*Plup. *memineram, I remembered, etc.*Fut. Perf. *meminerō, I shall remember, etc.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf. meminerim, *etc.* Plup. meminissem, *etc.*

IMPERATIVE.

Fut. mementō mementōte

INFINITIVE.

meminisse

(3.) coepī, have begun, has —

INDICATIVE.

Perf. coepī, *etc.* Plup. coeperam, *etc.* Fut. Perf. coeperō, *etc.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf. coeperim, *etc.* Plup. coepissem, *etc.*

INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. coepisse coeptus (-a, -um)

Fut. coeptūrus (-a, -um) esse coeptūrus (-a, -um)

a. With a passive infinitive the deponent forms are used: *coeptus est, erat, etc.*

(4.) āiō, say, has —

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

IMPERFECT.

āiō

āiēbam

āiēbāmus

ais

āiēbās

āiēbātis

ait āiunt

āiēbat

āiēbant

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

āiās

āiat

āiant

IMPERATIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

ai

āiēns

a. The comic writers have the imperfect forms *aibās, aibat, aibant*, and treat them as dissyllables.

(5.) *inquam*, say, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. <i>inquam</i> -quis	-quit -quimus -quitis -quiunt
Imp.	<i>inquiēbat</i> <i>inquiēbant</i>
	<i>inquībat</i>
Fut.	<i>inquiēs</i> <i>inquiet</i>
Perf.	<i>inquistī</i> <i>inquit</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. <i>inquiās</i>	<i>inquier</i>	<i>inquiātis</i>	<i>inquierant</i>
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IMPERATIVE.

inque
inquitō

(6.) *fārī*, to speak, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres.	<i>fātur</i>
Fut. <i>fābor</i>	<i>fābitur</i>
Perf.	<i>fātus est</i>
Plup. <i>fātus eram</i>	

IMPERATIVE.

fāre

INFINITIVE.

fārī (*fārier*)

PARTICIPLES.

fāns
fātus (-a, -um)

GERUND.

Gen. *fandī*
Abl. *fandō*

GERUNDIVE.

fandus, etc.

SUPINE.

fātū(7.) *queō*, can, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. <i>queō</i>	<i>quīs</i> <i>quit</i> <i>quīmus</i> <i>quitis</i> <i>queunt</i>
Imp. <i>quībam</i>	<i>quībat</i> <i>quībant</i>
Fut. <i>quībō</i>	<i>quībunt</i>
Perf. <i>quīvī</i>	<i>quīvit</i> <i>quīvērunt</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. <i>queam, etc.</i>		
Imp. <i>quīrem</i>	<i>quīret</i>	<i>quīrent</i>
Perf.	<i>quīverit</i>	
Plup.		<i>quīssent</i>

INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. <i>quīre</i>	<i>quīēns (queuntis, etc.)</i>
Perf. <i>quīvisse (quīsse)</i>	

(8.) *nequeō*, cannot, has —

INDICATIVE.

Pres. <i>nequeō nōnquīs</i>	<i>nequit -quīmus -quītis -queunt</i>
Imp. <i>nequībam</i>	<i>-quībat nequībant</i>
Fut.	<i>nequībunt</i>
Perf. <i>nequīvī -quīvistī -quīvit</i>	<i>nequīvērunt</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. <i>nequeam, etc.</i>
Imp. <i>nequīrem, etc.</i>
Plup. <i>nequīssset</i>

INFINITIVES.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. <i>nequīre</i>	<i>nequīēns (nequeuntis, etc.)</i>
Perf. <i>nequīvisse</i>	

a. Passive forms of these two verbs are occasionally found with a passive infinitive, as with *coepī* (see above). So *quītur, queātur, queantur, quītus, etc., nequītur* and *nequitum est, etc.*

NOTE. It will be seen that *queō* and *nequeō* are conjugated just like *eō*.

(9.) *quaesō*, beg, has —

Ind. Pres. <i>quaesō</i>	<i>quaesit</i>	<i>quaesumus</i>
Inf. Pres. <i>quaesere</i>		

(10.) Isolated forms are —

a. Imperative <i>havē, havēte, be well, blessed, etc.</i>
<i>havētō</i>
Infinitive <i>havēre</i>

- b.* Ind. Pres. *salveō*, I am well.
 “ Fut. *salvēbis*
 Imper. *salvē*, *salvēte*, be well, hail!
 salvētō
 Infin. *salvēre*
- c.* Imper. *cedo*, *cette*, say, let us have, etc.
- d.* Ind. Pres. *cōnfīt*, *dēfīt*, *dēfiunt*, *īnfīt*, *īnfiunt*,
 accomplish. fail. begin.
 “ Fut. *cōnfiet* *dēfiet*
 Subj. Pres. *cōnfīat* *dēfīat* *interfīat* (Lucr.)
 Imper. *cōnfieret*
 Infin. *cōnfieri* *dēfieri* *effieri*, *interfieri*
 (Plautus)
- e.* Ind. Pres. *ovat*, have an ovation.*
 Subj. Pres. *ovet*
 “ Imp. *ovāret*
 Participle *ovāns* *ovātus* *ovātūrus*
 Gerund *ovandī*

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

250. IMPERSONAL verbs are such as are used only in the third person singular and without a personal subject. The most common are the following: —

- a.* Ten verbs denoting mental or moral states: —

<i>deceat</i> , it is proper, becoming.	<i>oportet</i> , ought.
<i>libet</i> , it is pleasant.	<i>piget</i> , be disgusted.
<i>licet</i> , I, you, he, etc., may.	<i>paenitet</i> , repent.
<i>liquet</i> , it is clear.	<i>pudet</i> , be ashamed.
<i>miseret</i> , pity.	<i>taedet</i> , be weary of.

* An ovation among the Romans was a sort of lesser “triumph,” in which the general rode on horseback instead of in a chariot, as in the regular “triumph.”

b. Verbs denoting the state of the weather : —

<i>fulget,</i>	} it lightens.	<i>lapidat,</i> it rains stones.
<i>fulgurat,</i>		<i>ningit,</i> it snows.
<i>fūminat,</i>		<i>pluit,</i> it rains.
<i>gelat,</i> it freezes.		<i>tonat,</i> it thunders.
<i>grandinat,</i> it hails.		<i>vesperāscit,</i>
<i>lūcēscit,</i>	} it grows light.	<i>advesperāscit,</i>
<i>illūcēscit,</i>		<i>invesperāscit,</i>
		} evening approaches.

c. Also the following : —

<i>accidit,</i> it happens.	<i>interest,</i> it concerns.
<i>cōnstat,</i> it is accepted, believed.	<i>iuvat,</i> it delights.
<i>contingit,</i> it happens favorably.	<i>praestat,</i> it is better.
<i>convenit,</i> it is agreed upon.	<i>placet,</i> it pleases.
<i>displicet,</i> it displeases.	<i>rēfert,</i> it concerns.
	<i>restat,</i> it remains.

PARTICLES.

NOTE. Adverbs, so far as they are capable of inflection, have been treated under the Comparison of Adjectives (174-176). Their further treatment, as well as that of prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, belongs partly under Syntax, but mostly under Word-Formation, and will be found there.

For adverbs (derivation), see 292, 293 ; — (syntax), see 557.

For prepositions (in composition), see 301 ff.

For “ (syntax), see 428 ff., and 558 ff.

For conjunctions, see 562 ff.

For interjections, see 583.

WORD-FORMATION (*Dērīvātiō verbōrum*).

251. (1.) Words are either SIMPLE (*simplicia*) or COMPOUND (*composita*).

(2.) SIMPLE words are such as contain only one complete stem ; as, *lūdu-s*, game ; *reg-ō*, rule ; *nātūrālī-s*, natural.

(3.) COMPOUND words are such as contain two or more complete stems ; as, *māgnanimus* (*māgno- + animo-*), high-souled ; *intellegō* (*inter + legō*), understand.

252. (1.) Simple words are divided into PRIMITIVES (*primitīva*) and DERIVATIVES (*dērivāta*).

(2.) PRIMITIVE words are such as are formed directly from roots; as, *rēx*, king, $\sqrt{rēg}$; *cavus*, hollow, \sqrt{cav} ; *dīcō*, say, $\sqrt{dīc}$.

(3.) DERIVATIVE words are such as are formed from noun, adjective, or verb stems; as, *culpāre*, to blame, from *culpa* (stem *culpā-*); *fēlicitās*, happiness, from *fēlix* (stem *fēlic-*); *memorābilis*, remarkable, from *memorāre* (stem *memorā-*).

a. Words derived from noun or adjective stems are called DENOMINATIVES (*dēnōminātīva*); those from verb stems are called VERBALS (*verbālia*).

STRONG AND WEAK FORMS OF ROOTS.

253. Many roots appear in two forms, a strong form and a weak form. Thus:—

Weak Form.	Strong Form.
teg- <i>ere</i> , to cover.	tog- <i>a</i> , a toga.
fug- <i>ere</i> , to flee.	fūg- <i>ī</i> , I have fled.

a. There are a few instances of triple root forms. Thus: *fid-es*, faithfulness, *fīd-us*, faithful, *foed-us*, treaty. Cf. *dō-num*, gift, with *dū-s* and *dā-tus*.

SIMPLE WORDS.

NOTE. The origin of various Latin words is very obscure. They cannot be referred to any known roots. It is, of course, only the well established, common formations that can profitably be treated here.

Words without Suffixes.

254. A few nouns and adjectives are formed without any suffix,* the root itself serving as a stem. Thus:—

<i>cor</i> , n., heart; \sqrt{cord}	<i>pēs</i> , m., foot; \sqrt{ped}
<i>lūx</i> , f., light; $\sqrt{lūc}$	<i>trux</i> (adj.), savage; \sqrt{truc}

a. The unthematic verbs (see 239 ff.) also have no suffixes.

b. A very few roots are reduplicated; as, *mar-mor*, n., marble; *tur-tur*, m., turtle-dove.

* For the definition of "suffix," see 56.

Words with Suffixes.

255. The common suffixes as they appear in Latin words are as follows : —

(1.) Forming VOWEL stems.

o-, ā-,	io-, iā-,	ro-, rā- (lo-, lā-, ri-, li-)
i-	mo-, mā-	to-, tā- (so-, sā-)
u-	no-, nā-	ti- (si-)
bo-, bā-	ni-	tu- (su-)
cō-, cā-	nu-	tro-, trā-, tri- (cf. tr-, below).
do-, dā-		vo-, vā- (uo-, uā-)

(2.) Forming CONSONANT stems.

Suffix.	Nom. Sing.	Suffix.	Nom. Sing.
{ is-	ēs	ent-	ēns
{ er-	us; er (is)	{ min-	men
{ or-	us, ur; or (ōs)	{ mōn-	mō
{ ōr-	ōs, or	{ tr-	ter (cf. tr-,
{ in-	en; ō	{ tōr-	tor above).
{ ōn-	ō	{ sōr-	sor

a. Suffixes are called PRIMARY when applied directly to roots to form the stems of *primitive* words, SECONDARY or DERIVATIVE when applied to simple stems to make the stems of *derivative* words.

NOTE. To help the pupil in understanding the growth of words, his attention should be called to groups like the following : —

✓rub

rub-us, m., a bramble bush.

[*rubi-cus*.*]

Rubic-ō, the Rubicon (Red River).

rubicun-dus, ruddy.

rubicundu-lus, somewhat ruddy.

rub-e-r, red, ruddy.

Rubr-ius, a man's name.

rubri-ca, f., red earth.

rubric-āre, to color red.

Rubricā-ius, a river in Spain.

✓ōs

ōs (*ōris*), n., mouth.

ōr-āre, to plead.

ōrā-tor, m., pleader, orator.

ōrātōr-ius, belonging to an orator.

* The form *rubicus* does not itself occur, but is presupposed by *Rubicō* in conjunction with words like *bellicus* and *modicus*, from *bellum* and *modus*.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

256. As examples of primitive nouns and adjectives formed from roots with the foregoing suffixes may be given the following : —

(1.) VOWEL stems : —

<i>scrīb-a</i> , m., a scribe	✓ <i>scrīb</i> + <i>ā-</i>
<i>lūd-us</i> , m., play	✓ <i>lūd</i> + <i>o-</i>
<i>cav-us</i> , -a, -um, hollow	✓ <i>cav</i> + <i>o-</i> and <i>ā-</i>
<i>ac-us</i> ,* f., needle	✓ <i>ac</i> + <i>u-</i>
<i>mor-bus</i> , m., disease	✓ <i>mor</i> + <i>bo-</i>
<i>pau-ci</i> , -ae, -a, few	✓ <i>pau</i> + <i>co-</i> and <i>cā-</i>
<i>gen-ius</i> , m., guardian spirit	✓ <i>gen</i> + <i>io-</i>
<i>fā-ma</i> , f., report	✓ <i>fā</i> + <i>mā-</i>
<i>pūg-nus</i> , m., fist	✓ <i>pug</i> + <i>no-</i>
<i>māg-nus</i> , -a, -um, great	✓ <i>mag</i> + <i>no-</i> and <i>nā-</i>
<i>lū-na</i> , f., moon	✓ <i>lūc</i> + <i>nā-</i>
<i>pā-nis</i> , m., bread	✓ <i>pā</i> + <i>ni-</i>
<i>rub-er</i> , -ra, -rum, red	✓ <i>rub</i> + <i>ro-</i> and <i>rā-</i>
<i>sēl-la</i> , f., seat	✓ <i>sed</i> + <i>lā-</i>
<i>al-tus</i> , -a, -um, high	✓ <i>al</i> + <i>to-</i> and <i>tā-</i>
<i>vec-tis</i> , m., lever	✓ <i>vec</i> + <i>ti-</i>
<i>frūc-tus</i> , m., fruit	✓ <i>frug</i> + <i>tu-</i>
<i>cā-sus</i> , m., fall	✓ <i>cad</i> + <i>su-</i>
<i>cor-vos</i> , m., raven	✓ <i>cor</i> + <i>vo-</i>
<i>ar-vom</i> , n., ploughed field	✓ <i>ar</i> + <i>vo-</i>
<i>eq-uus</i> , m., horse	✓ <i>eq</i> + <i>uo-</i>

(2.) CONSONANT stems : —

nūbēs,† genitive *nūb-is*, f., cloud.

* The primitive adjectives formed with the suffix *u-* all afterwards received an *i* and passed over into the third declension. Thus : —

<i>ten-u-is</i> , thin	✓ <i>ten</i>
<i>pīng-u-is</i> , fat	✓ <i>pīng</i>
<i>suā-v-is</i> (for <i>suād-u-is</i>), sweet	✓ <i>suād</i>
<i>le-v-is</i> (for <i>leg-u-is</i>), light	✓ <i>leg</i>

† Cf. 109.

<i>later</i> ,	genitive	<i>lat-er-is</i> ,	m., brick.
<i>genus</i> ,	"	<i>gen-er-is</i> ,	n., birth.
<i>nemus</i> ,	"	<i>nem-or-is</i> ,	n., grove.
<i>fulgor</i> ,	"	<i>fulg-ōr-is</i> ,	m., flash, gleam.
<i>cardō</i> ,	"	<i>card-in-is</i> ,	m., hinge.
<i>virgō</i> ,	"	<i>virg-in-is</i> ,	f., maiden.
<i>nōmen</i> ,	"	<i>nō-min-is</i> ,	n., name.
<i>sermō</i> ,	"	<i>ser-mōn-is</i> ,	m., speech.
<i>pater</i> ,	"	<i>pa-tr-is</i> ,	m., father.
<i>dator</i> ,	"	<i>da-tōr-is</i> ,	m., giver.

NOUNS (AND ADJECTIVES) IN *-LUS, -LA, -LUM*.

257. The suffixes *lo-*, *lā-*, form a series of nouns and a few adjectives from primitive *o-* stems, the *o* regularly becoming *u* before the *l* of the suffix. Thus : —

<i>ānu-lus</i> ,	m., ring.	<i>iacu-lum</i> ,	n., javelin.
<i>ocu-lus</i> ,	m., eye.	<i>cingu-lum</i> ,	n., girdle.
<i>rabu-la</i> ,	m., pettifogger.	<i>iugu-lum</i> ,	n., collar-bone.
<i>tēgu-la</i> ,	f., tile.	<i>garru-lus</i> ,	-a, -um, talkative.

NOTE. Some of these words seem to have been formed from primitives once actually in use, but early supplanted by their derivatives, others to have been built upon the same pattern from roots or stems from which no corresponding primitive was ever used. This second process came about as follows: There are a few words, like *speculum*, n., mirror, and *figulus*, m., potter, which seem to have been made from *u-* stems rather than *o-* stems. Having words like these and others like *ānulus* (from the stem *ano-* + the suffix *lo-*), the Romans confounded the ending of the stem with the suffix and transferred *-ulus*, as a new ending, to other kinds of stems (or roots serving as stems). So in English, having inherited from Latin words like "portable," in which the "a" belongs to the stem, we transfer this "a" with the ending and form "bearable" from "bear." This process is called FORMATION BY ANALOGY. It is often impossible to tell whether a given Latin word was formed from a real primitive which afterwards became obsolete, or whether it simply grew by analogy.

258. (1.) The same suffixes *lo-*, *lā-* (*ro*, *rā-*), added to a series of stems (mostly obsolete) in *bo-* and *co-*, became fused with these syllables into the endings *-bulum*, *-culum*, *-brum*, *-crum*.

(2.) The endings -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, to which for convenience may be added -trum, form neuter nouns denoting MEANS or INSTRUMENT. Thus:—

<i>sta-bulum</i> , stall	cf. <i>stāre</i> , to stand ✓ <i>sta</i> .
<i>tūri-bulum</i> , censer	“ <i>tūs</i> (<i>tūris</i>), frankincense.
<i>vocā-bulum</i> , word	“ <i>vocāre</i> , to call, name.
<i>pō-culum</i> , cup	“ <i>pōtāre</i> , to drink.
<i>vehī-culum</i> , vehicle	“ <i>vehere</i> , to draw.
<i>perī-culum</i> , trial, danger	“ <i>ex-perīrī</i> , to try.
<i>crī-brum</i> , sieve	“ <i>cernere</i> , to sift, distinguish.
<i>dē-lū-brum</i> , shrine	“ <i>luere</i> , to wash, atone for.
<i>candēlā-brum</i> , candlestick	“ <i>candēre</i> , shine, <i>candēla</i> , candle.
<i>sepul-crum</i> , tomb	“ <i>sepelīre</i> , to bury.
<i>simulā-crum</i> , image	“ <i>simulāre</i> , make like, pretend.
<i>rās-trum</i> , rake	✓ <i>rād</i> + <i>tro-</i> (primary).
<i>arā-trum</i> , plough	stem of <i>arāre</i> + <i>tro-</i> (secondary).
<i>fere-trum</i> , bier	cf. <i>ferre</i> , to carry.

DIMINUTIVES.

259. The same suffixes *lo-*, *lā-*, came often to have a diminutive force,* forming a large number of nouns usually of the same gender as their primitives. They also form a few diminutive adjectives. Thus:—

(1.) From stems in *ā-* or *o-*, the stem vowel appearing as *u* generally, but as *o* after *e*, *i*, and *v*. Thus:—

<i>nīdu-lus</i> , a little nest, from <i>nīdus</i> .	
<i>cēnu-la</i>	“ <i>cēna</i> , dinner.
<i>oppidu-lum</i>	“ <i>oppidum</i> , town.
<i>alveo-lus</i>	“ <i>alveus</i> , a hollow.
<i>fīlio-lus</i>	“ <i>fīlius</i> , son.

* Compare the English “bookish” and “bluish,” “sunny” and “sonny.”

clāvo-lus * from *clāvos*, a nail.

parvo-lus, -a, -um “ *parvos*, small.

(2.) From dental and palatal stems, with a u added by analogy. Thus :—

aetāt-u-la from *aetās*, a period of life.

rēg-u-lus “ *rēx*, king.

vōc-u-la “ *vōx*, voice.

capit-u-lum “ *caput*, head.

(3.) If a liquid precedes the stem vowel of the primitive (*ā* or *o*) that vowel is dropped and the liquid assimilated, sometimes with slight further change. Thus :—

agellus (for *ager-u-lus*) from *ager*, field.

patella “ *patera*, saucer.

capella “ *capra*, goat.

puella “ *puera*, girl.

(but *puer-u-lus*) “ *puer*, boy.

asellus “ *asinus*, ass.

pulvīllus “ *pulvīnus*, cushion.

corōlla “ *corōna*, wreath.

columella “ *columna*, pillar.

sigilla (n. pl.) “ *sīgnum*, sign.

bacillum “ *baculum*, staff.

tabella “ *tabula*, tablet.

ocellus “ *oculus*, eye.

And by analogy

lapillus “ *lapis*, stone.

cōdicillus “ *cōdex*, a writing (originally, bark).

(4.) In the case of diminutives from other consonant stems and from *ē*-, *u*-, and *i*- stems, the endings have the forms, -culus, -cula, -culum.† Thus :—

sermun-culus from *sermō*, speech.

* The *o* was afterwards weakened to *u*, of course, as in the primitives. Hence, *clāvulus*, *parvulus*, etc.

† In some cases because an intervening stem in *co*- has disappeared, in others through growth by analogy.

<i>rūmus-culus</i>	from <i>rūmor</i> , report.
<i>arbus-cula</i>	“ <i>arbor</i> , tree.
<i>bū-cula</i>	“ <i>bōs</i> , cow.
<i>flōs-culus</i>	“ <i>flōs</i> , flower.
<i>māter-cula</i>	“ <i>māter</i> , mother.
<i>cor-culum</i>	“ <i>cor</i> , heart.
<i>diē-cula</i>	“ <i>diēs</i> , day.
<i>canī-cula</i>	“ <i>canis</i> , dog.
<i>arti-culus</i>	“ <i>artus</i> , limb.
<i>corni-culum</i>	“ <i>cornū</i> , horn.

a. *Rānun-culus*, from *rāna*, frog; *fūrun-culus*, from *fūr*, thief; and *conventi-culum*, from *conventus*, meeting, are also found.

b. A few diminutives are further formations, as : —

<i>aculeus</i>	from <i>acus</i> , needle [<i>acu</i> + <i>lo</i> + <i>io</i>].
<i>homunciō</i> (beside <i>homunculus</i>)	“ <i>homō</i> , man [<i>homon</i> + <i>co</i> + <i>io</i> + <i>ōn</i>].

c. There are also a few double formations; as : —

<i>asellulus</i>	<i>asellus</i>	<i>asinus</i> .
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ADJECTIVES IN -LIS AND -RIS.

260. The same suffixes (*lo-*, *lā-*, *ro-*, *rā-*) with the vowel weakened and thus appearing as *li-**, *ri-*, form a series of adjectives denoting various ways of “belonging to.” Thus : —

<i>humi-lis</i> , low	from <i>humus</i> ,† ground.
<i>agi-lis</i> , nimble	“ an obsolete <i>agus</i> .‡
<i>nōbi-lis</i> , famous	as if from <i>nōbus</i> .
<i>ūti-lis</i> , useful	“ “ “ <i>ūtus</i> .
<i>nātūrā-lis</i> , natural	from <i>nātūra</i> .

* There was a marked tendency of Latin adjectives to pass into *i-* stem forms and follow the third declension. Cf. the double forms in 155, 7, and the forms in 256, 1, footnote.

† For the weakening of the stem vowel *o* of the primitive to *i* in the derivative, see 59.

‡ The existence of a form *agus* is shown by the compound *prōd-igus* beside *co-āgu-lum*.

<i>lūnā-ris</i> , of the moon	from <i>lūna</i> .
<i>fidē-lis</i> , faithful	“ <i>fidēs</i> .
<i>tribū-lis</i> ,* of the same tribe	“ <i>tribus</i> .
<i>hostī-lis</i> , hostile	“ <i>hostis</i> .

261. Words like *agilis*, *nōbilis*, *ūtilis*, came to be regarded as verbals. Then the endings *-bilis* and *-tilis* were added to verb-stems to make adjectives denoting TENDENCY (more often passive than active). Thus :—

<i>amā-bilis</i> , lovable.	<i>terri-bilis</i> , terrible.
<i>flē-bilis</i> , lamentable, tearful.	<i>versū-tilis</i> , movable.

a. *Plausi-bilis*, worthy of applause, and some others, seem to be from noun-stems.

262. Through the transference of the stem vowel to the suffix arose the endings *-āris*, *-ālis*, *-ēlis*, *-īlis*, *-ūlis*. Thus :—

<i>milit-āris</i> , military	from <i>mīles</i> .
<i>popul-āris</i> , of the people	“ <i>populus</i> .
<i>nāv-ālis</i> , naval	“ <i>nāvis</i> .
<i>capit-ālis</i> , deadly, capital	“ <i>caput</i> .
<i>crūd-ēlis</i> , cruel	“ <i>crūdus</i> .
<i>vir-īlis</i> , manly	“ <i>vir</i> .
<i>ped-ūlis</i> , of the feet	“ <i>pēs</i> .

a. Such adjectives were often used as nouns ; as, *aed-īlis*, m., an aedile ; *ovīle*, n., a sheep-fold ; and, dropping the final vowel, *pugil*, m., boxer ; *animal*, n., living thing.

ADJECTIVES IN *-NUS*, *-NA*, *-NUM*.

263. The suffixes *no-*, *nā-*, form another series of adjectives denoting “belonging to.” Thus :—

<i>māg-nus</i> ,† great	from $\sqrt{\text{mag}} + \text{no-}$ (primary).
<i>pater-nus</i> , of a father	“ <i>pater</i> .
<i>fāgi-nus</i> , beechen	“ <i>fāgus</i> .

* The long quantity of the penultimate u, i, or o, in such derivatives has never been satisfactorily explained.

† This suffix was originally participial.

<i>Rōmā-nus</i> , Roman	from <i>Rōma</i> .
<i>collī-nus</i> , hilly	“ <i>collis</i> .
<i>marī-nus</i> , of the sea	“ <i>mare</i> .

264. The suffixes *no-*, *nā-*, form many adjectives of TIME. Thus : —

<i>hodie-nus</i> , to-day's	cf. <i>hodiē</i> .
<i>diur-nus</i> , of the day	“ <i>diēs</i> .
<i>hester-nus</i> , yesterday's	“ <i>herī</i> .
<i>crāsti-nus</i> , to-morrow's	“ <i>crās</i> .
<i>aeter-nus</i> , everlasting	“ <i>aevom</i> .
<i>diūti-nus</i> , } long-continued	“ <i>diū</i> .
<i>diūtur-nus</i> , }	
<i>mātūtī-nus</i> , of the morning	“ <i>mātūta</i> .
<i>vespertī-nus</i> , of the evening	“ <i>vesper</i> .

265. Through the transference of stem vowels to the suffix *-a* rose the endings *-ānus*, *-ēnus*, *-īnus*. Thus : —

<i>mont-ānus</i> , mountainous	from <i>mōns</i> .
<i>Gracch-ānus</i> , of Gracchus.	
<i>sēr-ēnus</i> , calm.	
<i>terr-ēnus</i> , earthy	“ <i>terra</i> .
<i>dīv-īnus</i> , god-like	“ <i>dīvos</i> .
<i>vīc-īnus</i> , neighboring	“ <i>vīcus</i> .

a. With these adjectives compare nouns like *membr-āna*, *har-ēna*, *rēg-īna*, *pīstr-īnum*, *patr-ōnus*, *ann-ōna*, *fort-ūna*.

b. The distributive numerals are also formed in *-nus*; as, *bīnī*, *sēnī*, etc. (See 157, 158.)

ADJECTIVES IN *-cus*, *-ca*, *-cum*.

266. Another series of adjectives is formed with the suffixes *co-*, *cā-*, which added to different kinds of stems give the endings *-ācus*, *-īcus*, *-ūcus*, *-icus*, *-aticus*. Thus : —

<i>pau-cus</i> , few	✓ <i>pav</i> .
<i>belli-cus</i> , warlike	from <i>bellum</i> .
<i>cīvi-cus</i> , of a citizen	“ <i>cīvis</i> .

<i>Galli-cus</i> , Gallic	from <i>Gallus</i> .
<i>op-ācus</i> , shady.	
<i>pud-īcus</i> , modest	cf. <i>pudor</i> .
<i>cad-ūcus</i> , ready to fall	" <i>cadere</i> .
<i>patr-icus</i> , of a father	from <i>pater</i> .
<i>vēnāti-cus</i> , belonging to hunting	" <i>vēnātus</i> .
<i>fluvi-āticus</i> , living in water	cf. <i>fluvius</i> .

a. Through the Greek come words like —

Sōcraticus, of Socrates.
Īliacus, of Ilium, Trojan.
Corinthiacus, of Corinth.

267. A suffix *c-* with the vowel dropped was added to *ā-* stems, and the ending *-āx* was then transferred to other stems, the adjective thus formed denoting a (generally faulty) tendency. Thus:—

pūgn-ā-x (*pūgnā-c-is*), inclined to fight.
aud-ā-x, bold.
ten-ā-x, tenacious.

ADJECTIVES IN -IUS, -IA, -IUM.

268. Another series of adjectives is formed with the suffixes *io-*, *iā-*, which, added to different kinds of stems, give the endings *-eus*, *-cius*, *-ceus*, *-icius*, *-āceus*, *-īcius*. Such adjectives often denote MATERIAL. Thus:—

<i>rēg-ius</i> , royal	from <i>rēx</i> .
<i>uxōr-ius</i> , uxorious	" <i>uxor</i> , wife.
<i>Ephes-ius</i> , of Ephesus.	
<i>aur-eus</i> (for <i>aure-ius</i>), golden	" <i>aurum</i> .
<i>trīti-ceus</i> , wheaten	" <i>trīticum</i> .
<i>aedīli-cius</i> , of an aedile	" <i>aedīlis</i> .
<i>patr-icius</i> , patrician	" <i>pater</i> (through <i>patricus</i>).
<i>herbā-ceus</i> , grassy	" <i>herba</i> .
<i>harundin-āceus</i> , like a reed	cf. <i>harundō</i> .
<i>meretrīc-ius</i> , meretricious	from <i>meretrīx</i> .
<i>tribūn-īcius</i> , tribunial	cf. <i>tribūnus</i> .

<i>ōrātōr-ius</i> , of an orator	from <i>ōrātor</i> .
<i>praetōr-ius</i> , praetorian	“ <i>praetor</i> .
<i>cēnsōr-ius</i> , of a censor	“ <i>cēnsor</i> .

a. From various Greek proper names are formed adjectives in *-ēus* and *-aeus*. Thus : —

Epicūrēus, Epicurean.

Smyrnaeus, of Smyrna.

269. The ending *-ārius* * forms adjectives often becoming nouns and denoting TRADE or PROFESSION (masculine), or PLACE (neuter). (Cf. 276, 4.) Thus : —

<i>sīc-ārius</i> , m., assassin	from <i>sīca</i> , dagger.
<i>advers-ārius</i> , -a, -um, opposed	“ <i>adversus</i> .
<i>legiōn-ārius</i> , belonging to the legion	“ <i>legiō</i> .
<i>argent-ārius</i> , m., banker	“ <i>argentum</i> .
<i>ōrdin-ārius</i> , -a, -um, customary	“ <i>ōrdō</i> .
<i>tumultu-ārius</i> , -a, -um, hurried	“ <i>tumultus</i> .
<i>aer-ārium</i> , n., treasury	“ <i>aes</i> .

NOUNS OF AGENCY.

270. Nouns of AGENCY are formed from roots or verb stems with the suffixes *tōr-*, *sōr-*, masc., *trīc-*, fem. Thus : —

<i>da-tor</i> , giver	from $\sqrt{da} + tor$ - (primary); cf. <i>dare</i> .
<i>ōrā-tor</i> , pleader, orator	“ stem <i>ōrā-</i> + <i>tor</i> - (secondary); cf. <i>ōrāre</i> .
<i>suā-sor</i> , adviser	“ $\sqrt{suād-} + sōr$ - (primary); cf. <i>suādēre</i> .
<i>vic-trīx</i> , conqueress	“ stem <i>vic-</i> + <i>trīc-</i> ; cf. <i>vincere</i> .
<i>vēnā-trīx</i> , huntress	“ stem <i>vēnā-</i> + <i>trīc-</i> ; cf. <i>vēnārī</i> .

So *viā-tor*, summoner, through an obsolete *viāre*; *sen-ā-tōr*, senator, through an obsolete *senāre*.

a. The suffix appears in the form *tr-* in the following : —

<i>frā-ter</i> , m., brother (<i>i. e.</i> , supporter. Cf. <i>ferō</i>).	
<i>mā-ter</i> , f., mother.	<i>pa-ter</i> , m., father.

* This ending seems to consist of *ro-* + *io-*, added at first to stems in *-ā-* and then transferred with the *ā* to other stems. (Cf. first example.)

271. The person or (personified) thing which has to do with something is indicated by the following suffixes:—

(1.) *ōn*-. Thus:—

praec-ō (for *prae-voc-ō*), m., herald, \checkmark *voc* + *ōn* (primary).
centuri-ō, m., centurion, from *centuria*, company of one hundred.

(2.) *ti*-, dropping the vowel and forming the nominative in *-es*. Thus:—

eques (*equi-tis*), m., horseman.

āles (*āli-tis*), c., bird.

a. Some of these nouns were originally adjectives. So *āles*, (orig.) winged.

ABSTRACT NOUNS.

272. Abstract nouns have the following endings:—

-ia (*-tia*), *-ium* (*-tium*), *-iēs* (*-tiēs*)

-ta, *-tās*, *-tūs*; *-gō*, *-dō* (*-tūdō*)

-la, *-iō* (*-tiō*, *-siō*); *-tus*, *-ūra* (*-tūra*, *-sūra*)

NOTE. Abstract nouns denoting *quality* are formed from noun and adjective stems; abstract nouns expressing *action*, from verb stems. They tend, however, to become more or less concrete, and the abstract meaning is not always easy to trace. The English “relation” used for “relative” is an example of this tendency of abstracts to become concrete.

273. Abstract nouns denoting **QUALITY** are formed with the following suffixes:—

(1.) *iā*-, fem.; *io*-, neuter. Thus:—

<i>audāc-ia</i> , boldness	from <i>audāx</i> .
<i>cūstōd-ia</i> , guard	“ <i>cūstōs</i> .
<i>mendāc-ium</i> , lie	“ <i>mendāx</i> .
<i>mīlit-ia</i> , military service	“ <i>mīles</i> .
<i>hospit-ium</i> , hospitality	“ <i>hospes</i> .

a. Through forms like *mīlitia* and *hospitium*, the endings *-tia* and *-tium* were transferred to other kinds of stems. Thus:—

<i>amīci-tia</i> , friendship	from <i>amīcus</i> .
<i>dūri-tia</i> , sternness	“ <i>dūrus</i> , hard.
<i>servi-tium</i> , slavery	“ <i>servos</i> .



b. Collateral forms in *-iēs* and *-tiēs* in the fifth declension appear beside the forms in *-ia* and *-tia* of the first. Thus : —

māteriēs beside *māteria*, material.
dūritiēs “ *dūritia*, hardness.

(2.) *tā*-, *tāt*-,* *tūt*-.* Thus : —

<i>iūven-ta</i> , f., youth	from <i>iūvenis</i> .
<i>senec-ta</i> , f., old age	“ <i>senex</i> .
<i>cīvi-tās</i> , f., citizenship, state	“ <i>cīvis</i> .
<i>boni-tās</i> , f., goodness	“ <i>bonus</i> .
<i>pie-tās</i> , f., filial affection, loyalty	“ <i>pius</i> .
<i>māies-tās</i> , f., majesty	“ <i>māior</i> (- <i>ius</i>), greater.
<i>hones-tās</i> , f., respectability	“ <i>honor</i> , office, honor.
<i>vir-tūs</i> , f., manliness, bravery, virtue	“ <i>vir</i> .
<i>senec-tūs</i> , f., old age	“ <i>senex</i> .
<i>servi-tūs</i> , f., slavery	“ <i>servos</i> .

a. The stem vowel is dropped in *liber-tās*, freedom, from *liber*.

(3.) *gin*- and *din*-† The latter is especially common as an addition to stems in *tu*-, giving the ending *-tūdō*. Thus : —

<i>imā-gō</i> , f., image.	
<i>ori-gō</i> , f., origin	cf. <i>orirī</i> .
<i>aerū-gō</i> , f., copper-rust.	
<i>vir-āgō</i> , f., virago	from <i>vir</i> (by analogy).
<i>torpē-dō</i> , f., sluggishness	cf. <i>torpēre</i> .
<i>cupī-dō</i> , f., desire	“ <i>cupere</i> .
<i>dulcē-dō</i> , f., sweetness	“ <i>dulcis</i> .
<i>māgni-tūdō</i> , f., size	from <i>māgnus</i> .
<i>forti-tūdō</i> , f., endurance	“ <i>fortis</i> .
<i>habi-tūdō</i> ,‡ f., custom.	
<i>valē-tūdō</i> , f., health.	

* These two suffixes consist of *ti*- (with vowel dropped) added to real or supposed stems in *tā*- and *tu*-.

† *I. e.*, *go*- + *in*-, and *dō*- + *in*-.

‡ *Habitus* (gen. *-ūs*) is more common, and suggests the type on which the words in *-tūdō* were built.

274. Abstracts denoting the NAME OF AN ACTION are formed with the following suffixes : —

(1.) *lā-* (added to verb stems in *ē-*, and the ending *-ēla* then transferred to other stems). Thus : —

<i>candē-la</i> , f., candle	cf. <i>candēre</i> .
<i>tūtē-la</i> , f., protection	“ <i>tuērī</i> .
<i>client-ēla</i> , f., clientship	“ <i>cliēns</i> .
<i>quer-ella</i> , f., complaint	“ <i>querī</i> .
<i>loqu-ella</i> , f., speech	“ <i>loquī</i> .

(2.) *iōn-* (*tiōn-*, *siōn-*).* Thus : —

<i>leg-iō</i> , f., gathering, legion	cf. <i>legere</i> .
<i>īnsit-iō</i> , f., grafting	“ <i>īnserere</i> , <i>īnsitus</i> .
<i>quaest-iō</i> , f., investigation	“ <i>quaerere</i> .
<i>māns-iō</i> , f., a remaining	“ <i>manēre</i> , <i>mānsum</i> .
<i>cōgitāt-iō</i> , f., reflection	“ <i>cōgitāre</i> , <i>cōgitātus</i> .
<i>largīt-iō</i> , f., bestowal of a largess	“ <i>largīrī</i> , <i>largītum</i> .

(3.) *tu-*. Thus : —

<i>mō-tus</i> , m., motion (contracted for <i>movitus</i>)	cf. <i>movēre</i> .
<i>comitā-tus</i> , m., retinue	“ <i>comitārī</i> .
<i>equitā-tus</i> , m., cavalry	“ <i>equitāre</i> .
<i>moni-tus</i> , m., warning	“ <i>monēre</i> .
<i>anhēli-tus</i> , m., panting	“ <i>anhēlāre</i> .

(4.) *rā-* (added to stems in *u-*, and thus producing the endings *-ūra*, *-tūra*, *-sūra*). Thus : —

<i>fig-ūra</i> , f., shape	cf. <i>figere</i> .
<i>pīc-tūra</i> , f., painting	“ <i>pingere</i> .
<i>ū-sūra</i> , f., use, enjoyment of a thing	“ <i>ūtī</i> .
<i>cēn-sūra</i> ,† censorship.	
<i>prae-tūra</i> , praetorship.	

NOUNS WITH VARIOUS ENDINGS.

275. ACT, MEANS, or RESULT is denoted by the suffixes

* These two suffixes seem to be made by adding *iōn-* to the stems of perfect participles.

† Often thus coming to denote an office.

min- (oftener increased to mentō-) and mōnio-,* neuter, and mōniā,* feminine. Thus:—

<i>tēg-men,</i>	} covering	cf. <i>tegere</i> .
<i>tegu-men,</i>		
<i>tegi-men,</i>		
<i>certā-men,</i> strife, contest		“ <i>certāre</i> .
<i>frāg-mentum,</i> fragment		“ <i>frangere</i> .
<i>ōrnā-mentum,</i> ornament		“ <i>ōrnāre</i> .
<i>argu-mentum,</i> argument		“ <i>arguere</i> .
<i>monu-mentum,</i> memorial		“ <i>monēre</i> .
<i>condi-mentum,</i> seasoning		“ <i>condire</i> .
<i>testi-mōnium,</i> testimony.		
<i>queri-mōnia,</i> complaint.		

276. Nouns denoting PLACE are formed with the following suffixes: to- (ēto-), inā- (trīnā-, trīnō-), īli-, ārio-, tōrio- (sōrio-).

(1.) to-, ēto- denote the place where something GROWS IN ABUNDANCE. Thus:—

<i>arbus-tum,</i> orchard	from <i>arbor</i> .
<i>querc-ētum,</i> oak-grove	cf. <i>quercus</i> .
<i>vīn-ētum,</i> vineyard	“ <i>vīnum</i> .

(2.) inā-, trīnā-, trīno- denote the place where something IS DONE. Thus:—

<i>cul-īna,</i> kitchen.	<i>tōns-trīna,</i> barber-shop.
<i>sal-īnae,</i> salt mines.	<i>pīs-trīnum,</i> treadmill.

a. Nouns in -inā also often denote a SCIENCE, and many have other meanings; as, *dīscipl-īna*, teaching; *medic-īna*, medicine; *rēg-īna*, queen; *ru-īna*, downfall, etc.

(3.) īli- denotes especially the PLACE where ANIMALS

* The origin and development of these suffixes, as of several to be mentioned later (ēto-, inā-, trīna-, ivo-, ōso-, olento-, bundo-, cundo-, etc.), are partly too little known, partly too complicated, for explanation in a school grammar. It seems best, therefore, simply to chronicle them as they appear.

are kept. These nouns are the neuters of adjectives. (See 260-262.) Thus : —

ov-īle, sheepfold from *ovis*.

cub-īle, chamber.

(4.) *ārio-* forms nouns which are really the neuter of adjectives in *-ārius*. (See 269.) Thus : —

columb-ārium, dove-cote. *tepid-ārium*, room for a warm bath.

(5.) *tōrio-* (*sōrio-*) forms nouns which are really the neuter of adjectives in *-tōrius* (*-sōrius*). (See 268.) Thus : —

prae-tōrium, general's tent. *dēver-sōrium*, inn.

PATRONYMICS.

277. PATRONYMICS (*patrōnymica*), that is, nouns denoting descent, from the name of the father or other ancestor, are formed with the following (Greek) endings : *-idēs* (fem. *-is*), *-īdēs* (fem. *-ēis*), *-iadēs* (fem. *-ias*), and *-adēs*.

a. The masculine patronymics (*i. e.*, those in *-dēs*) are of the first declension; the feminines (*i. e.*, those in *-as* or *-is*) are of the third.

b. There are also a few feminines of the first declension in *-inē* or *-iōnē*. Thus : —

Nērīnē, daughter of *Nēreus*.

Acrisiōnē, “ *Acrisius*.

278. (1.) *-idēs* (f. *-is*) is used with names ending in *-us* (except *-ius*), *-ōr*, and *-s* preceded by a consonant; also with those in *-ōn* which have the stem vowel short. Thus : —

Priamidēs from *Priamus*.

Tantalīs “ *Tantalus*.

Danaīs “ *Danaus*.

Agēnoridēs “ *Agēnōr*.

Cecropidēs “ *Cecrops*.

Agamemnonidēs “ *Agamemnōn*, stem *Agamemnōn*.

(2.) -īdēs (f. -ēis) is used with names ending in -eus or -clēs. Thus:—

<i>Atrīdēs</i>	from <i>Atreus</i> .
<i>Hērāclīdēs</i>	“ <i>Hērāclēs</i> .
<i>Nērēis</i>	“ <i>Nēreus</i> .

(3.) -iadēs (f. -ias) is used with names in -ius, with many in -ēs or -ō, after the dropping of these endings, and with names in -ōn if the stem vowel is long. Thus:—

<i>Thestiadēs</i> }	from <i>Thestius</i> .
<i>Thestias</i> }	
<i>Anchīsiadēs</i>	“ <i>Anchīsēs</i> .
<i>Scīpiadēs</i>	“ <i>Scīpiō</i> .
<i>Telamōniadēs</i>	“ <i>Telamōn</i> , stem <i>Telamōn</i> -.
So also <i>Atlantiadēs</i>	“ <i>Atlās</i> .

(4.) -adēs is used with most names in -ās or -ēs
Thus:—

<i>Aeneadēs</i>	from <i>Aenēās</i> .*
<i>Hippotadēs</i>	“ <i>Hippotēs</i> .

GENTILE ADJECTIVES.

279. GENTILE adjectives (*gentīlicia*), that is, words denoting the place or country to which some one belongs, are formed with the following suffixes: co-, cā-; io-, iā-; no-, nā-; ti-; ēnsi-. Thus:—

<i>Galli-cus</i> , Gallic, a Gaul.	<i>Fidēnās</i> (-ātis), of Fidenae.
<i>Ephes-ius</i> , Ephesian.	<i>Arpīnās</i> (-ātis), of Arpinum.
<i>Rōmā-nus</i> , Roman.	<i>Samnīs</i> (-ītis), of Samnium.
<i>Tūscul-ānus</i> , Tusculan.	<i>Cann-ēnsis</i> , of Cannae.
<i>Neāpolit-ānus</i> , of Naples.	<i>Utic-ēnsis</i> , of Utica.
<i>Praenest-īnus</i> , of Praeneste.	<i>Athēni-ēnsis</i> , of Athens.
<i>Lat-īnus</i> , Latin.	<i>Sulmōn-ēnsis</i> , of Sulmo.
<i>Amer-īnus</i> , of Ameria.	<i>Vēi-ēns</i> , of Veii.

* The change of vowel from ē in the primitive to ē in the patronymic is due to a secondary form, *Aenēās*.

NOTE. No distinct rule can be given as to what sort of stems these different endings are used with. But stems in *ā*- usually have *-ānus*, those in *iā*- or *io*-, *inus*, others in *o*-, *-icus*; *-ius* is used mostly with Greek words, and consonant stems generally have *-ēnsis*. Other forms also are used; as, *Āfer*, African; *Siculus*, Sicilian. Cf. also the adjectives like *Smyrnaeus* derived through the Greek (268, a).

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

280. Adjectives with the participial meaning "provided with" are formed with the suffixes *to*-, *tā*-, which added to different kinds of stems give the endings *-ātus*, *-ītus*, *-ūtus*. Thus:—

<i>rōbus-tus</i> , strong	from <i>rōbur</i> .
<i>hones-tus</i> , honorable	" <i>honor</i> .
<i>togā-tus</i>	" <i>toga</i> , a toga.
<i>turrī-tus</i>	" <i>turris</i> , tower.
<i>cornū-tus</i>	" <i>cornū</i> , horn.
<i>aur-ātus</i>	" <i>aurum</i> , gold, through <i>aurāre</i> .
<i>cord-ātus</i>	" <i>cor</i> , heart, as if through <i>cordāre</i> .
<i>mell-ītus</i>	" <i>mel</i> , honey.
<i>av-ītus</i>	" <i>avos</i> (-us), grandfather.
<i>nās-ūtus</i>	" <i>nāsus</i> , nose.

NOTE. *Aegrōtus*, sick, suggests with *patrōnus*, *annōna*, etc., a lost series of verb stems in *ō*-.

281. Adjectives with about the meaning of present participles are formed with the suffixes *bundo*- and *cundo*-. Thus:—

<i>fā-cundus</i> , eloquent.	<i>mīrā-bundus</i> , wondering.
<i>iū-cundus</i> , pleasant.	<i>verē-cundus</i> , modest.
<i>īrā-cundus</i> , wrathful.	<i>mori-bundus</i> , dying.

282. The suffixes *mo*-, *mā*-, *no*-, *nā*-, alone and combined together, form several adjectives and nouns which were originally participles. Thus:—

<i>al-mus</i> , -a, -um, kindly	cf. <i>alere</i> , to raise, nourish.
<i>fā-ma</i> , f., report	" <i>fārī</i> , to speak.
<i>māg-nus</i> , -a, -um, great.	

som-nus, m., sleep (for *sop-nus* ; cf. *sōpīre*).

fē-mīna, f., woman.

ter-minus, m., boundary.

alu-mnus, -a, -um, cherished ; hence, as a noun, foster-child.

a. The same combined suffix is found in the second person plural of passive and deponent verbs, — *regi-minī*, *monē-minī*, *amābā-minī*, — and in the old imperative forms like *hortā-minō*. (See 227, f.)

ADJECTIVES WITH VARIOUS ENDINGS.

283. Various adjectives are formed with the suffixes *do-*, *dā-*, *uo-*, *uā-*, *ivō-*, *ivā-*. Thus : —

<i>turbi-dus</i> , disordered	from <i>turba</i> .
<i>vīvi-dus</i> , lively.	
<i>frīgi-dus</i> , cold	cf. <i>frīgus</i> .
<i>avi-dus</i> , greedy.	
<i>herbi-dus</i> , grassy	from <i>herba</i> .
<i>lepi-dus</i> , charming	cf. <i>lepor</i> .
<i>ann-uus</i> , yearly	from <i>annus</i> .
<i>vac-uus</i> , }	empty.
<i>vac-ivus</i> , }	
<i>nāt-ivus</i> , native	cf. <i>nātus</i> .
<i>aest-ivus</i> , of summer	“ <i>aestās</i> .
<i>capt-ivus</i> , captive	“ <i>captus</i> .

284. Another series of adjectives is formed with the suffixes *bri-*, *cri-*, *tri-*, the last often denoting PLACE. Thus : —

<i>cele-ber</i> , famous.	<i>medio-cri-s</i> , mediocre.
<i>lūgu-bris</i> , mournful.	<i>eques-tris</i> , equestrian (for
<i>salū-bris</i> , healthful.	<i>equet-tris</i>).
<i>mulie-bris</i> , womanish.	<i>campes-tris</i> , level.
<i>volu-cer</i> , winged.	<i>terres-tris</i> , earthy.

Cf. also *creber*, -bra, -brum, frequent.

285. Adjectives denoting FULLNESS are formed with the suffixes *ōso-*, *olent-*, *olento-*. Thus : —

<i>glōri-ōsus</i>	from <i>glōria</i> , glory.
<i>pericul-ōsus</i>	“ <i>periculum</i> , danger.
<i>gener-ōsus</i>	“ <i>genus</i> , birth.
<i>aestu-ōsus</i>	“ <i>aestus</i> , heat, tide.
<i>op-ulēns</i> *	“ [<i>ops</i>], wealth.
<i>vi-olēns</i>	“ <i>vīs</i> , force.
<i>fraud-ulentus</i> *	“ <i>fraus</i> , treachery.
<i>vin-olentus</i>	“ <i>vinum</i> , wine.

286. Adjectives denoting various relations of NUMBER are formed as follows : —

(1.) MULTIPLICATIVES denote how many fold, and end in -plex. Thus : —

<i>simplex</i> , single.	<i>quīncuplex</i> , fivefold.
<i>duplex</i> , double, twofold.	<i>centuplex</i> , a hundredfold.

(2.) PROPORTIONALS denote how many times one thing is greater than another, and end in -plus. Thus : —

<i>duplus</i> , twice as great.	<i>octuplus</i> , eight times as great.
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(3.) TEMPORALS denote how many years old, and end in -imus. Thus : —

<i>bīmus</i> , two years old.	<i>quadrīmus</i> , four years old.
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NOTE. Adjectives in -ārius, from the distributives, denote the number of parts of which a thing consists, but they belong chiefly to post-classical usage. Thus : *quaternārius*, of four parts.

VERBS.

287. -āre, -ēre, -ēre, -īre, were treated by the Romans as derivative endings to form many verbs from noun and adjective stems. The stem-vowel of the noun or adjective, unless u, disappears. Thus : —

<i>culpāre</i> , † to blame	from <i>culpa</i> , fault.
<i>dōnāre</i> , to give	“ <i>dōnum</i> , gift.

* o of the suffix weakened to u.

† The verbs in -āre must have started from noun stems in ā-, and those in -īre from stems in ī-, and these endings must then have been transferred to other stems by analogy.

<i>laudāre</i> , to praise	from <i>laus</i> , praise.
<i>aestuāre</i> , to seethe, boil	“ <i>aestus</i> , heat.
<i>albēre</i> , to be white	“ <i>albus</i> , white.
<i>lūcēre</i> , to shine	“ <i>lūx</i> , light.
<i>metuēre</i> , to fear	“ <i>metus</i> , fear.
<i>statuere</i> , to fix	“ <i>status</i> , position.
<i>pūnīre</i> , to punish	“ <i>poena</i> , punishment.
<i>servīre</i> , to be a slave	“ <i>servos</i> (-us), slave.
<i>fīnīre</i> , to end	“ <i>fīnis</i> , end.
<i>cūstōdīre</i> , to guard	“ <i>cūstōs</i> , guard.

NOTE. The verbs with consonant stems (third conjugation), and many of the short verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, were inherited by the Romans from the parent language, and these verbs furnished the pattern for the verbs treated in 287. Such inherited verbs are *regere*, *amāre*, *monēre*, *audire*. Their development is too complicated to be explained in a school grammar. Many of the simple nouns and adjectives treated above were of course also inherited already formed from the parent language, as can be seen by comparing the corresponding words in Greek and Sanskrit. Their growth, however, is much simpler and easier to trace than that of the inherited verbs.

a. The denominatives of the first conjugation are generally transitive; those of the second are almost invariably intransitive. Cf. the examples. Those in the third conjugation are all from *u*-stems.

b. Pairs of verbs are sometimes found, one usually from the weak form of a root and intransitive, the other from the strong form and transitive (causative verbs, *verba causātīva*). Thus: —

<i>placēre</i> , to please	<i>plācāre</i> , to appease.
<i>sedēre</i> , to sit	<i>sēdāre</i> , to settle.

FREQUENTATIVE AND INTENSIVE VERBS.

288. (1.) FREQUENTATIVES (*frequentātīva*), that is, verbs denoting a repetition of the action of their primitives, and INTENSIVES (*intēnsīva*), or verbs denoting a forcible action, are formed from perfect participles by substituting the characteristic *ā* for the stem vowel. Thus: —

<i>adiūtāre</i>	from <i>adiuvāre</i> (<i>adiūtus</i>).
<i>dictāre</i>	“ <i>dīcere</i> (<i>dictus</i>).
<i>quassāre</i>	“ <i>quātere</i> (<i>quassus</i>).
<i>habitāre</i>	“ <i>habēre</i> (<i>habitus</i>).
<i>dormītāre</i>	“ <i>dormīre</i> (<i>dormītum</i>).

(2.) From forms like *habitāre*, the apparent ending -itāre spread to various present stems, and also took the place of the regular formation from verbs of the first conjugation. Thus:—

<i>agitāre</i>	from <i>agere</i> .	<i>minītārī</i>	from <i>minārī</i> .
<i>nōscitāre</i>	“ <i>nōscere</i> .	<i>rogitāre</i>	“ <i>rogāre</i> .
<i>clāmitāre</i>	“ <i>clāmāre</i> .		

a. *Vidēre*, see, makes *vīsere* through *vīsus*.

(3.) Double formations occur. Thus:—

<i>currere</i>	<i>cursāre</i>	<i>cursitāre</i> .
<i>dīcere</i>	<i>dictāre</i>	<i>dictitāre</i> .
<i>venīre</i>	(<i>ad</i>)- <i>ventāre</i>	<i>ventitāre</i> .

(4.) Another kind of intensives is formed with the ending -essō, rarely -issō, in the third conjugation, with the perfect and perfect participle stems generally made after the analogy of the fourth, if used at all. Thus:—

<i>laccessō</i>	<i>laccessere</i>	<i>laccessīvī</i>	<i>laccessītus</i> .
<i>incessō</i>	<i>incessere</i>	<i>incessīvī</i> or <i>incessī</i>	—
<i>petissō</i>	<i>petissere</i>	—	—

a. Frequentatives are also called ITERATIVES (*iterātīva*), and the intensives in -essō (-issō) are also called MEDITATIVES (*meditātīva*).

INCEPTIVE VERBS.

289. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES (*inceptīva* or *incohātīva*), that is, verbs which denote the beginning of an action, are formed by adding -scō to a verb stem, or by analogy, to noun stems. They are intransitive, of the third conjugation. (Cf. 235, 236, 237.) Thus:—

<i>labāscere</i>	from <i>labāre</i> .	<i>obdormāscere</i>	from <i>obdormāre</i> .
<i>calēscere</i>	“ <i>calēre</i> .	<i>puerāscere</i>	“ <i>puer</i> .
<i>tremescere</i>	“ <i>tremere</i> .	<i>iuvēnēscere</i>	“ <i>iuvenis</i> .
<i>ingemiscere</i>	“ <i>ingemere</i> .	<i>dūrēscere</i>	“ <i>dūrus</i> .

DESIDERATIVE AND DIMINUTIVE VERBS.

290. DESIDERATIVES (*dēsīderātīva*) express a desire to do something. They end in *-turiō* (*-suriō*). Thus:—

<i>empturiō</i>	<i>empturīre</i>	_____	_____
<i>parturiō</i>	<i>parturīre</i>	<i>parturīvī (-ii)</i>	<i>parturītum</i> .
<i>ēsurīō</i>	<i>ēsurīre</i>	_____	<i>ēsurītum</i>

NOTE. Others are rare and chiefly confined to the comic poets.

291. DIMINUTIVE verbs (*dēminūtīva*) are formed from diminutive noun-forms in *-illus* by substituting *ā* for the stem vowel. Thus: *cantillāre*, *cōnscrībīllāre*.

NOTE. The diminutive verbs are very few in number.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

292. Besides the adverbs in *-ē* and *-ter* formed and compared from adjectives, given under 174 ff., the following should be noticed:—

(1.) Numeral adverbs are formed from numbers above four by the ending *-iēs*. (Cf. 157 and 158.) Thus:—

quīnquiēs, five times. *deciēs*, ten times.

(2.) Certain adverbs of manner are formed with the ending *-ātīm* as if accusatives of the third-declension nouns made from the perfect participle stems of verbs of the first conjugation. Thus:—

gradātīm, by degrees, slowly, as if through *gradārī*, *gradātus*; cf. *gradī*, to walk.

gregātīm, in crowds. Compare *con-gregāre*, to gather into a flock.

(3.) A few adverbs denoting origin or manner end in *-itus*. Thus:—

dīvīnitus, from the gods.

funditus, from the bottom, utterly.

rādīcitus, root and branch.

293. All other adverbs were originally oblique cases of nouns, adjectives, or pronouns, and are —

(1.) Also used as oblique cases. Thus : —

multō, much.

continuō, immediately.

tantum, so much and no more, only.

For others, see 187.

(2.) Recognizable as case forms, though no longer used as such. Thus : —

partim, partly.

secus, otherwise.

(3.) More or less disguised. Thus : —

hinc, hence.

illūc, thither.

ad-eō,* to such a degree. *com-minus*,* at close quarters.

quasi,* as it were.

COMPOUND WORDS.

294. Almost all Latin compounds consist of two parts only, the second part forming what may be called the *basis* of the meaning, and the first part indicating some *modification* therein.

Thus, in *decemvirī*, the basis of meaning is *virī*, men, and this is limited by *decem* to a body of ten men ; in *fūnambulū*, the basis of meaning is “a walker,” and this is limited in the compound to a rope-walker ; in *vorsipellis*, the basis of meaning, “skin,” is limited by the notion of turning or changing, so that the compound means “changeable” (cf. English “turn-coat”) ; in *persuādeō*, the basis of meaning, “advise,” is modified so as to mean “advise through to the end” (*i. e.*, carry one’s point by advice, persuade).

* Words like these are of course compounds, each part being originally a case form. They are included here for the convenience of the learner.

Nouns and Adjectives.

295. (1.) The first part of a compound noun or adjective may be a noun, adjective, or participle stem, or a numeral, a preposition, or one of a small number of particles called prefixes.

(2.) The second part of a compound noun or adjective may be a noun, an adjective, or a participle, but it is far more commonly a noun or adjective form which does not occur as a simple word. Thus: —

<i>māgnanimus</i> , great-souled	<i>māgno-</i> + <i>animus</i> .
<i>vorsipellis</i> , changeable	<i>vorso-</i> + <i>pellis</i> .
<i>suāvilōquēns</i> , sweet-speaking	<i>suāvi-</i> + <i>loquēns</i> .
<i>fūnambulus</i> , rope-walker	<i>fūni-</i> + [<i>ambulus</i>].
<i>sacrilegus</i> , sacrilegious	<i>sacro-</i> + [<i>legus</i>].
<i>decemvirī</i> , decemvirs	<i>decem</i> + <i>virī</i> .
<i>interrex</i> , interrex *	<i>inter</i> + <i>rēx</i> .
<i>innātus</i> , inborn	<i>in</i> (prep.) + <i>nātus</i> .
<i>imberbis</i> , beardless	<i>in-</i> (neg. prefix) and <i>barba</i> .
<i>nefās</i> , wrong	<i>ne</i> + <i>fās</i> .
<i>sublūstris</i> , rather light	<i>sub</i> + [<i>lūstris</i>].
<i>pergrātus</i> , very pleasing	<i>per</i> + <i>grātus</i> .

a. Compound adjectives, which, like *māgnanimus*, indicate the *possession* of some quality, are called POSSESSIVES. The second part of these compounds is almost always a noun. Thus: *multangulus*, many-cornered; *quadrupēs*, four-footed.†

b. Other compound adjectives and all compound nouns are sometimes distinguished from the possessives by the name DETERMINATIVES, because their first part *determines* how the meaning of the second part is to be applied.

NOTE. In nouns and adjectives compounded with prepositions or prefixes, *in* is much more often a negative prefix than a preposition, *sub* has a diminutive force, *per* and (less commonly) *prae* an intensive force, as in the examples above.

* *I. e.*, an officer who rules between the death of one king and the accession of the next.

† Such compounds in English generally end in *-ed*, as in the translations of the examples above; but compare words like *bald-head*, *lap-streak*.

296. (1.) When the first part of a compound noun or adjective is a noun, adjective, or participle stem ending in a vowel, this vowel is *usually* dropped if the second part begins with a vowel, as in *māgnanimus* and *fūnambulū*, above.

(2.) When the second part begins with a consonant, and occasionally when it begins with a vowel, the stem vowel of the first part is retained but generally weakened to *i*, as in *sacrilegus* above, or in *tubicen*, trumpeter (*tu-bā- + [cen]*), *arcitenēns*, bow-holding (*arcu- + tenēns*).

a. Sometimes the stem vowel of the first part is only flattened to *o* or *u*, especially in compounds of early date. Thus:—

<i>viocūrus</i> , overseer of roads	<i>viā- + [cūrus]</i> .
<i>Trōiugena</i> , Trojan-born	<i>Trōiā- + [gena]</i> .
<i>quadrupēs</i> , four-footed	<i>quadro- + pēs</i> .

297. (1.) If the first stem ends in a consonant it suffers in early compounds only the euphonic changes required by the rules in 65 ff., as *iūdex* for *iūsdx*, judge (*i. e.*, right-speaker).

(2.) Generally, however, consonant stems assume a vowel after the analogy of the other stems. This vowel was originally *o*, but is generally weakened to *i* or sometimes flattened to *u*, as with the real stem vowels. Thus:—

<i>parricīda</i> , murderer of a father	<i>patr- + i + [cīda]</i> .
<i>mōrigerus</i> ,* complying	<i>mōr- + i + [gerus]</i> .
<i>pedisequa</i> ,† female attendant	<i>ped- + i + [sequa]</i> .

298. Most compound verbs are formed of simple verbs and prepositions. Thus:—

<i>incipiō</i> , seize upon, begin	<i>in + capiō</i> .
<i>auferō</i> , take away	<i>ab + ferō</i> .
<i>subvertō</i> , overturn	<i>sub + vertō</i> .

* Literally, carrying (*i. e.*, putting up with) a person's whims.

† Literally, foot-follower.

a. The prepositions were earlier adverbs, and in composition often retain their adverbial force. Cf. *ī prae, sequor*, go before, I (will) follow (Ter., *And.*, i., 1, 144), with *ut cōsulibus lictōrēs praeirent*, that lictors should walk before the consuls (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, ii., 31, 55).

b. The following compounds of verbs with other words than prepositions occur : —

<i>adsuēfaciō</i> ,*	} accustom.	<i>mānsuēfaciō</i> , tame.
<i>cōnsuēfaciō</i> ,		<i>patefaciō</i> , open.
<i>benefaciō</i> , benefit.		<i>satisfaciō</i> , satisfy.
<i>calefaciō</i> , make warm.		<i>tremefaciō</i> ,† cause to tremble.
<i>commonefaciō</i> , remind forcibly.		<i>mālō</i> , prefer (<i>mage + volō</i>).
<i>labefaciō</i> , make totter.		<i>nōlō</i> , be unwilling (<i>nē + volō</i>).
<i>malefaciō</i> , do harm to.		<i>satagō</i> , be busy enough (<i>sat + agō</i>).

299. In the second part of words compounded with a preposition or the negative prefix *in-*, vowel weakening generally occurs. Thus : —

<i>cōnficiō</i> , <i>cōnfectum</i>	<i>con</i>	+ <i>faciō</i> , <i>factum</i> .
<i>imperō</i>	<i>in</i> (prep.)	+ <i>parō</i> .
<i>inimīcus</i>	<i>in-</i> (neg.)	+ <i>amīcus</i> .
<i>inīquus</i>	<i>in-</i> (neg.)	+ <i>aequus</i> .

a. In compounds of *iaciō* the verb form appears as *iciō*, before which the vowel of a preposition ending in a vowel is retained long, and that of one ending in a consonant is often lengthened. Thus : —

<i>ābiciō</i> .	<i>dēiciō</i> .	<i>trāiciō</i> .
<i>cōniciō</i> .	<i>ōbiciō</i> .	<i>sūbiciō</i> .

300. A very few words are compounded of more than two stems. Thus : —

suovetaurilia † *su-* + *ovi-* + *tauro-*

a. Words of which both parts are inflected are, properly

* The nature of the first part of these compounds of *faciō* is obscure ; it is probably a noun form or possibly an infinitive.

† A sacrifice consisting of a swine, a sheep, and a bull.

‡ These words are accented like the simple *faciō* ; as, *benefā'cit*.

speaking, not compounds, and in the best usage are written separately. Thus: *iūs iūrandum*, oath; *rēs pūblica*, state; *vērī similis*, likely.

b. So also forms like *multimodīs* (i. e., *multīs modīs*), *inprīmīs*, *agrī cultūra*, *aquae ductus*, *pater familiās*, are not real compounds, but only phrases which have grown more or less together. Perhaps also *satis faciō*, *bene faciō*, etc., should be classed with these loose unions of words rather than as compound verbs. In *animadvertō* (i. e., *animum advertō*) the union is disguised by the dropping of the accusative ending *-um*.

c. From real compounds are to be distinguished *derivatives from compounds*, such as the following: —

beneficium, kindness, from *beneficus* (*bene*, stem of old form of *bonus*, and *ficus*, from root of *faciō*).

sōlstitium, solstice,* as if from *sōlstitus* (*sōl*- and *status*).

tergiversārī, shuffle, as if from *tergiversus* (*tergo*- and *versus*).

Cf. *cōgitāre*, to meditate, which may be regarded as a compound of *com* and *agitāre*, or as a frequentative of *cōgere*, itself a compound of *com* and *agere*.

NOTE. Latin did not develop the ability to form compounds to anything like the extent of the Greek and other kindred languages. Most of the compounds formed, except those with prepositions or the negative prefix *in-*, are rare and confined chiefly to the poets.

Forms of the Prepositions in Compounds.

301. Prepositions ending in a consonant vary greatly in the degree in which their final consonant is assimilated with the initial consonant of the other part of the compound. Thus, in the best usage: —

(1.) *ab* is written before *d*, *h*, *i* *cōnsonāns*, *l*, *n*, *r*, *s*. Thus: *ab-dicō*, *ab-horreō*, *ab-iectus*, *ab-iūdicō*, *ab-lēgō*, *ab-nuō*, *ab-ripiō*, *ab-sum*.

abs before *c*, *t*. Thus: *abs-cēdō*, *abs-tineō*.

ās before *p*. Thus: *ās-portō*.

ā before *f* in *ā-fuī*, and before *m* or *v*. Thus: *ā-moveō*, *ā-vocō*.

* The time when the sun seems to stand still.

au before f in *au-ferō* and *au-fugiō*.

(2.) ad is written before b, d, f, h, i cōnsonāns, m, n, q, v. Thus: *ad-bibō*, *ad-dūco*, *ad-fatim*, *ad-ferō*, *ad-haereō*, *ad-iūtō*, *ad-mīrābilis*, *ad-moneō*, *ad-nuō*, *ad-quīrō*, *ad-vocō*.

Generally before g, l, p, r, s. Thus: *ad-gredior*, *ad-ligō*, *ad-petō*, *ad-rogō*, *ad-sum*. Otherwise assimilation takes place. Thus: *ag-ger*, *al-ligō*, *ap-petō*, *ar-rogō*.

ac before c. Thus: *ac-cipiō*.

ad or ā before gn, sp, sc, st. Thus: *ā-gnōscō* (*ad-nōscō*), *ad-spīrō* (*ā-spīrō*), *ad-scīscō*, *ad-stringō* (*ā-stringō*).

ad or at before t. Thus: *at-trahō* (*ad-trahō*).

(3.) ante has the form *anti* in *anti-cipō* (from an obsolete *anti-ceps*), *anti-cipātiō*, *anti-stes*, *anti-stō*.*

(4.) com is written before b, m, p. Thus: *com-būrō*, *com-mīttō*, *com-pāgēs*, *com-parō*.

con before c, d, g, i cōnsonāns, q, t, v, and generally before l and r. Thus: *con-cipiō*, *con-dūcō*, *con-gerō*, *con-iūrō*, *con-queror*, *con-temnō*, *con-vocō*, *con-legō* (*col-legō*), *con-loquium* (*col-loquium*), *con-ruō* (*cor-ruō*).

cōn before f, s. Thus: *cōn-ferō*, *cōn-sternō*, *cōn-sistō*.

cō before gn, n, and before vowels † and h, and when contracted as in *cōgō*. Thus: *cō-gnōscō*, *cō-nectō*, *cō-nīveō*, *cō-nītor*. (Cf. *cōnūbium*.)

(5.) ex is written before c, h, p, q, s, t. Thus: *ex-celsus*, *ex-cipio*, *ex-hauriō*, *ex-petō*, *ex-quīrō*, *ex-spectō*, *ex-tendō*.

ē before b, d, g, i cōnsonāns, l, m, n, r, v. Thus: *ē-blandior*, *ē-ducō*, *ē-gredior*, *ē-gregius*, *ē-iūrō*, *ē-lābor*, *ē-mineō*, *ē-necō*, *ē-ripiō*, *ē-vādō*.

ef, and sometimes ec, before f. Thus: *ef-ferō* and (less commonly) *ec-ferō*.

* Cf. the old forms *antid-eā*, *antid-eō*, *antid-hāc*.

† *Comedō* may be an exception.

(6.) *in* is written before *c*, *d*, *g* (except *gn*), *h*, *i* *cōnsonāns*, *n*, *q*, *t*, *v*. Thus: *in-cēdō*, *in-dūcō*, *in-gemiscō*, *in-hiō*, *in-iungō*, *in-nītor*, *in-quīrō*, *in-tendō*, *in-vādō*.

in is also generally written before *l* and sometimes before *b*, *m*, *p*, *r*. Otherwise assimilation occurs before *l* and *r*; and *im* is written before *b*, *m*, *p*. Thus: *in-lūstrō*, *im-buō*, *in-mīttō* (*im-mīttō*), *im-perō* (*in-perō*), *in-ruō* (*ir-ruō*).

īn before *f*, *s*. Thus: *īn-ferō*, *īn-serō*.

a. What has been said of the preposition *in* is equally true of the negative prefix *in-*. We write, therefore, *in-liberālis*, *in-mortālis* (*im-mortālis*), *īn-sōns*, *in-vīsus*, etc.

b. The negative prefix, however, unlike the preposition, occurs before *gn*, and then has the form *ī*; as, *ī-gnārus*, *ī-gnōscō*.

(7.) *ob* is written before *d*, *h*, *i* *cōnsonāns*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*. Thus: *ob-dūcō*, *ob-haereō*, *ob-iectus*, *ob-iūrgō*, *ob-linō*, *ob-mūtēscō*, *ob-nūbō*, *ob-ruō*, *ob-sistō*, *ob-tineō*, *ob-veniō*.

Assimilation generally takes place before *c*, *f*, *p*. Thus: *oc-currō*, *of-ferō*, *op-petō*.

o is written in *o-mīttō*, and *o-periō*.

obs in *obs-olēscō*, and without the *b* in *ōs-tendō*.

(8.) *pēr* is unchanged, except in *pē-ierō* for *per-iūrō*. *ē-ierō* is also sometimes written.

(9.) *sub* is written before *d*, *h*, *i* *cōnsonāns*, *l*, *s*, *t*, *v*. Thus: *sub-dūcō*, *sub-haereō*, *sub-iungō*, *sub-levō*, *sub-lūstris*, *sub-sistō*, *sub-tendō*, *sub-veniō*.

Sometimes before *m* and *r*. Thus: *sub-moveō* (*sum-moveō*), *sub-ripio* (*sur-ripio*).

sūs (for *subs*) in *sūs-cipiō*, *sūs-citō*, *sūs-pendō*, *sūs-tineō*, *sūs-tulī*.

sū in *sū-spicere*, *sū-spīro*.

Assimilation occurs before *c*, *f*, *g*, *p*, and sometimes *m*

and *r* (see above). Thus: *suc-currō*,* *suf-ferō*, *sug-gerō*, *sup-petō*, *sup-pleō*.

(10.) *trāns* is written before *d*, *f*, *g*, *m*, *p*, *v*. Thus: *trāns-currō*, *trāns-ferō*, *trāns-fuga*, *trāns-gredior*, *trāns-mittō*, *trāns-portō*, *trāns-vehō*.

trān before *s*. Thus: *trān-scribō*, *trān-scendō*.

trāns or *trā* before *d*, *n*. Thus: *trāns-dūcō* (*trā-dūcō*), *trā-dō*, *trāns-natō* (*trā-natō*):

302. Among the inseparable prepositions —

(1.) *amb* becomes *am* before consonants, chiefly *p*. Thus: *am-putō*, *am-plector*. But *an* before *f*, *h*, or a palatal mute. Thus: *an-hēlō*, *an-quīrō* (cf. *an-ceps*, *an-fractus*).

(2.) *dis* is written in *dis-hiāscō*, and before *c*, *p*, *q*, *t*, and *s*, followed by a vowel. Thus: *dis-cēdō*, *dis-par*, *dis-putō*, *dis-quīrō*, *dis-tendō*, *dis-sentiō* (but *di-sertus*, from *dis-serō*).

dif before *f*. Thus: *dif-ferō*, *dif-ficilis*.

dī before other consonants. Thus: *dī-dūcō*, *dī-gerō*, *dī-moveō*, *dī-scindō*.

dis or *dī* before *i cōnsonāns*. Thus: *dis-iungō*, but *dī-iūdicō*.

(3.) *re* (so also *prō*) retains the original *d* before vowels. Thus: *red-eō*. Also in *red-dō*.

303. A few compounds with prepositions ending in a consonant suffer contraction. Thus: —

sūrgō for *sub* + *regō*.

pērgō for *per* + *regō*.

pōnō “ *po* + *sinō*.

Quantity of Compounds.

304. Compound words generally retain the quantity of the parts of which they are composed, even though vowel change may have taken place.

* Here also *sub* is sometimes left unchanged.

NOTE. The following observations are inserted here for the convenience of the learner, although some of the words treated are not compounds; for example, *quidam*.

305. *i* is long in the first part of words like *quīdam*, *quīvis*, etc., if that part is declined. Thus: *quīlibet*, *quicumque*, etc., but *quīdem*.

306. The following words beginning with *prō* (and their derivatives) have the *o* short: —

<i>a. procella</i> , blast, storm.	<i>profringō</i> , break up.
<i>profānō</i> , desecrate.	<i>profugiō</i> , flee from.
<i>perfectō</i> , surely.	<i>profundus</i> , deep.
<i>profestus</i> , non-festival (day).	<i>pronepōs</i> , great-grandson.
<i>proficiscor</i> , start.	<i>propēs</i> , a piece of rigging.
<i>profiteor</i> , profess.	<i>propinquus</i> , near.
<i>profārī</i> , speak out.	<i>protervos</i> (-us), forward.

b. All Greek words, and the following with their derivatives: —

<i>probus</i> , first class.	<i>procō</i> , demand.
<i>probrum</i> , wrong.	<i>procus</i> , suitor.
<i>prope</i> , near.	<i>propitius</i> , propitious.

c. The *o* is common in *prōpāgō*, *f.*, a slip, *prōpāgāre*, to propagate, and *prōpīnāre*, to drink to the health of.

307. The following compounds of *nē* have the *e* long; others have it short: —

<i>nēcubi.</i>	<i>nēquam.</i>	<i>nēquitia.</i>
<i>nēcunde.</i>	<i>nēquāquam.</i>	<i>nēscius.</i>
<i>nēdum.</i>	<i>nēquīquam.</i>	<i>nēscio.</i>
<i>nēmō.</i>	<i>nēquiter.</i>	<i>nēve.</i>

308. The following quantities are useful to remember: —

<i>alicubi.</i>	<i>ubivīs.</i>	<i>quandoquidem.</i>
<i>sīcubi.</i>	<i>utinam.</i>	<i>sīquidem.</i>
<i>ubicumque.</i>	<i>ibidem.</i>	<i>nisi.</i>
<i>ubinam.</i>	<i>equidem.</i>	<i>quasi.</i>
<i>ubique.</i>	<i>quidem.</i>	<i>alibi.</i>

NOTE 1. An interesting relation exists between the consonants of many primitive words in Latin and those of the corresponding words in English, both being derived from the same (Indo-European) parent language. This relation may be indicated by the following scheme: —

Latin.	English.	Latin.	English.
c	h *	<i>canis,</i>	hound.
g	k	<i>genus,</i>	kin.
t	th	<i>trēs,</i>	three.
d	t	<i>decem,</i>	ten.
p	f	<i>pater,</i>	father.
b (<i>rare</i>)	p	<i>labrum,</i>	lip.
f	b	<i>ferō, frāter,</i>	bear, brother.
}			
	l	<i>lūx,</i>	light.
	m	<i>mēns,</i>	mind.
	n	<i>novos,</i>	new.
	r	<i>rēctus,</i>	right.
	s	<i>suāvis, ✓ suād,</i>	sweet.
}			
i cōnsonāns	y	<i>iuvenis,</i>	young.
v	w	<i>via, volnus,</i>	way, wound.

NOTE 2. It will be seen that, as far as the mutes are concerned, the English word shows the mute which occupies in the scale smooth, middle, rough, the place next after the Latin mute (Grimm's Law of the Permutation of Mutes).

SYNTAX (*Syntaxis*).

THE SENTENCE.

309. A SENTENCE (*sententia*) is the statement of a complete thought in words; as, *canēs lātrant*, the dogs are barking.

310. (1.) That about which something is said is called the SUBJECT (*subiectum*) of the sentence.

(2.) That which is said of the subject is called the PREDICATE (*praedicātum*).

Thus, in the above sentence, *canēs* is the subject and *lātrant* is the predicate. In the sentence, *Hannibal, māgnus dux Karthāginiēnsium, sempiternum ergū Rōmānōs odium iūrāvit*, Hannibal the great Carthaginian leader swore everlasting hatred

* This *h* is the remnant of an earlier *ch*.

towards the Romans, the subject is *Hannibal māgnus dux Karthāginiēnsium*, the predicate *sempiternum ergā Rōmānōs odium iūrāvit*.

311. (1.) A sentence containing only one subject and predicate is called a SIMPLE sentence.

(2.) A sentence consisting of two or more members, each of which has its own subject and predicate, is called a COMPOUND sentence. Thus : —

Lātrāvit canis — et fūr vēlōciter fūgit, the dog barked and the thief ran quickly away ; *cum pūgnae fīnis esset factus — eōs — quī ceciderant — sepeliēbant*, when the battle was finished, they began to bury those who had fallen.

312. The different members of a compound sentence are called CLAUSES.

313. Clauses are either PRINCIPAL or SUBORDINATE.

314. (1.) A PRINCIPAL (also called INDEPENDENT) clause is one which makes complete sense by itself ; as, *lātrāvit canis*, or *eōs sepeliēbant*.

(2.) A SUBORDINATE (or DEPENDENT) clause is one which makes complete sense only when taken with some other clause upon which it is said to depend. Thus : *cum pūgnae fīnis esset factus*, and *quī ceciderant*, in the sentence above.

a. Sentences which contain subordinate clauses and only one principal clause are sometimes called COMPLEX sentences ; as, *Phōciōn fuit perpetuō pauper, cum ditissimus esse posset*, Phocion was always poor, when he might have been very rich. The term “compound sentence” is then confined to sentences which, like *lātrāvit canis et fūr vēlōcitēr fūgit*, have more than one independent clause. In complex sentences the principal clause is often called the MAIN clause.

b. Parts of a sentence consisting of two or more words which are not subject and predicate are called PHRASES. Thus : *māgnus dux Karthāginiēnsium ; fortiter pūgnāre*.

315. Sentences are distinguished as —

(1.) DECLARATIVE (*dēclārātīvae*), or such as have the form of a statement; as, *ventī spīrant*, the winds blow.

(2.) INTERROGATIVE (*interrogātīvae*), or such as have the form of a question; as, *spīrantne ventī*, do the winds blow?

(3.) EXCLAMATORY (*exclāmātōriae*), or such as have the form of an exclamation; as, *quam vehementer spīrant ventī*, how fiercely the winds blow! *Utinam veniat*, oh that he may come!

(4.) IMPERATIVE (*imperātīvae*), or such as have the form of a command, an exhortation, or a prohibition; as, *spīrāte, ventī*, blow, winds; *veniat bellum*, let the war come; *nē quaesieris*, ask not.

a. Sentences expressing exhortation are also called HORTATORY; those denoting prohibition, PROHIBITORY.

RULES OF AGREEMENT.

316. The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case, and the verb agrees with its subject in number and person. Thus:—

Egō scribō, I write; *nōs veniēmus*, we shall come; *tū legis*, you read; *hī Graecī sunt*, these men are Greeks; *Rōmulus Rōmam condidit*, Romulus founded Rome.

a. When the subject is a personal pronoun, especially in the first or second person, it is seldom expressed except when it marks a contrast or is otherwise emphatic. The person and number are shown by the ending of the verb. Thus:—

Cupiō, I desire; *vīvis*, thou livest; *habēmus*, we have; *dīcunt*, they say. But: *egō rēgēs ēiēcī*, *vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcītis*, I drove out kings, but *you* are bringing in tyrants; *tū es patrōnus*, *tū pater*, *you* are my defender, *you* my father.

317. The nominative of the third person is further omitted:—

(1.) When it has been expressed in a previous clause (generally as subject, but also sometimes in other constructions). Thus : —

Mosa prōfluit ex monte Vosegō et in Ōceanum influit (Caes., *B. G.*, iv., 10), the Meuse rises in the Vosges mountains and empties into the ocean ; *cursōrem mīsērunt ut id nūntiāret*, they sent a courier to carry that news (Cor. Nep.).

(2.) When people in general are meant, as when we say “men,” “they,” “one.” Thus : —

Dīcunt, they say ; *ut aīunt*, as they say ; *māximē admīrantur eum quī pecūniā nōn movētur*, men particularly admire one who is not influenced by money (Cic.).

(3.) So in treatises or discussions, when the subject denotes a type of persons, where we say “one.” Thus : —

In victū cōsiderāre oportet apud quem et quō mōre et cūius arbitrātū sit educātus, in regard to manner of living we must consider in whose family and in what fashion and under whose direction one has been brought up (*i. e.*, the person in question) (Cic., *Inv.*, i., 25, 35).

318. Certain verbs are used in the third person singular without a subject (impersonal, *impersōnālīa*). Thus : —

(1.) Verbs denoting the state of the weather or operations of nature ; as, *fulgurat*, it lightens ; *ningit*, it snows ; *lūcēscēbat*, it was growing light.

(2.) The verbs of feeling : *miseret*, pity ; *paenitet*, repent ; *piget*, be disgusted ; *pudet*, be ashamed ; *taedet*, be tired. Thus : —

Eōs ineptiārum paenitet, they repent (lit., it repents them) of their follies ; *miseret tē aliōrum, tuū tē nec miseret nec pudet*, you do pity others ; for yourself you have neither pity nor shame (Plaut., *Trin.*, ii., 4, 30).

NOTE. It will be seen that the real subject of the feeling here is by a grammatical idiom made the object of the verb.

(3.) The passive of intransitive verbs and of some transitive verbs. Thus : —

Favētur tibi ā mē, you have my support; *ad exitum ventum est*, the end was reached; *āctum est dē imperiō*, the supremacy is lost (lit., it is finished with regard to the supremacy).

(4.) Especially the neuter of the gerundive with *est*, *erat*, etc., denoting what must be done. Thus:—

Sī vīs mē flēre, *dolendum est primum ipsi tibi*, if you want me to weep, you must first grieve yourself (Hor., *Epist.*, ii., 3, 102).

a. Many apparently impersonal verbs have a clause or an infinitive as subject. So especially words like *accidit*, happens; *cōstat*, is accepted as true; *convenit*, is agreed. Thus:—

Ēvēnīt, senibus ambōbus simul iter ut esset, both old gentlemen happened to take the same road (Ter., *Phor.*, i., 2, 15); *vacāre culpā mūgnū est solācium*, to be free from fault is a great consolation; *ōrandū est ut sit mēns sūna in corpore sūnō*, we should pray for a sound mind in a sound body (Iuv., *Sat.*, x., 356); *ōrātōrem irāscī nōn decet*, it is unseemly for an orator to give way to anger.

319. Two or more singular subjects generally have a plural verb. Thus:—

Furor iraque mentem praecipitant, madness and passion rob [me] of my cool reason (Verg.); *grammaticē quondam āc mūsicē iūnctae fuērunt*, grammar and music were once united (Quint.).

a. The verb is always plural, when, as in the second example, it would make no sense with the subjects *taken separately*.

320. With several singular subjects, however, the verb is singular if—

(1.) They form together one idea; as:—

Senātus populusque Rōmānus iūssit, the Roman senate and people gave orders; *mēns enim et ratiō et cōsiliū in senibus est*, intelligence, reason, wisdom belong to old men.

(2.) Generally if connected by a word meaning “or” or “nor” (*aut*, *vel*, *neque*, etc.); as:—

Sī Sōcratēs aut Antisthenēs dīceret, if Socrates or Antisthenes said [this].

321. But the verb often agrees with the nearest nominative, or with the most important one, and is understood with the rest. Thus : —

Tum aetās vīrēsq̄, tum avīta glōria animum stimulābat, then his (youthful) age and strength and the thought of his grandfather's glory goaded on his spirit (Līv.).

a. This is always the case when the verb belongs to each subject separately ; as : —

Magis egō tē amō quam tū mē, I love you more than you love me.

322. When a plural verb is used with subjects of different persons, it is of the first person rather than the second, and of the second person rather than the third. Thus : —

Sī tū et Tullia valētis, egō et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

323. A relative pronoun may represent any one of the three persons ; its verb takes therefore the person of the antecedent. Thus : —

Egō, quī tē cōfirmō, ipse mē nōn possum, I, who comfort you, cannot comfort myself.

For the agreement of the verb with an appositive or a predicate noun, see 330.

For the *cōstrūctiō ad sēsum*, see 345 ff.

APPOSITIVES AND PREDICATE NOUNS.

324. A noun qualifying another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in case.

325. When the qualifying noun is annexed to the other noun without the intervention of a verb it is called an APPOSITIVE, and the words are said to be IN APPOSITION. Thus : —

Scīpiō dux, Scipio, the general ; *nōs cōsulēs*, we consuls ; *urbs Rōma*, the city of Rome ; *Volsiniī, oppidum Tūscōrum opulentissimum, tōtum cremātum est fūlmine*, Volsinii, a very rich town of the Tuscans, was wholly consumed by fire caused

by lightning (Plin., *N. H.*, ii., 53) ; *Tullia, dēliciae nostrae, mūnusculum tuum flāgitat*, Tullia, my darling, has a little favor to beg of you (Cic., *Att.*, i., 8.)

a. A noun may be in apposition to two or more nouns, and is then usually plural. Thus : —

M. Antōnius C. Cassius tribūnī plēbis, Marcus Antonius and Gaius Cassius, tribunes of the commons.

b. So when two nouns are connected by *cum*, an appositive takes the case of the former ; as : —

Dicaearchum vērō cum Aristoxenō, doctōs sānē hominēs omittāmus, let us leave out Dicaearchus with Aristoxenus, [who are] certainly learned men.

c. A noun denoting a whole may have in apposition to it words denoting the parts (partitive apposition). Thus : —

Onerāriae, pars māxima ad Aegimūrum, aliae adversus urbem ipsam dēlātae sunt, the ships of burden were mostly carried to Aegimurus, others over against the city itself (Liv.).

d. *Quisque*, as an appositive, generally remains in the nominative even when the other word has a different case ; as : —

Multis sibi quisque imperium petentibus, while many were trying to get the power, each for himself (Sall., *Jug.*, 18).

e. *Ipse* is sometimes used in the same way by Livy and later writers.

For the apposition of common nouns with names of towns in constructions of place, see 426, g and h.

326. In the same sense as a noun in apposition is sometimes used a genitive depending on the noun (see 351, note), especially with names of cities ; as, *urbs Rōmae*.

a. The expression “ my name is so and so ” may be translated into Latin in the following three ways : —

Camillus * *mihī est nōmen* (proper name predicate nominative).

Camillō mihī est nōmen (proper name in app. with *mihī*).

Camillī mihī est nōmen (“ “ “ gen. with *nōmen*).

NOTE. Cicero uses most often the first of the three ways given.

* Lit., “ Camillus is the name to me.”

327. When the annexed noun is combined with the other by the copula *sum* or other similar verb (expressed or implied *) it is called a PREDICATE noun. Thus : —

Īra furor brevis est, anger is a short madness ; *ego vocor Lyconidēs*, I am called Lyconides ; *iūdicem mē esse volō*, I wish to be a judge.

328. Predicate nouns are most commonly used with : —

(1.) The copula *sum* ; as : —

Sōcratēs sapiēns erat, Socrates was a philosopher.

(2.) Intransitive verbs denoting existence, position, or motion ; as : —

Haec incēdit rēgīna, she walks [like] a queen ; *tūne venīs lēgātus*, do you come as an ambassador ?

(3.) The passive of verbs meaning —

a. To name or call ; as : —

Cicerō pater patriae est appellātus, Cicero was called the father of his country ; *ille liber ōrātor inscribitur*, that book is entitled “ The Orator.”

b. To choose, render, appoint ; as : —

Cōsul creātus est, he is appointed consul.

c. To esteem, reckon, consider ; as : —

Vir bonus semper erat habitus, he had always been considered a good man ; *artium domicilium putantur Athēnae*, Athens is thought to be the home of the arts.

(4.) Many other verbs, to denote a purpose, occasion, or circumstance of the action ; as : —

Puer hōc audīvī, I heard this when a boy ; *Brūtus cōsul auspīcia nūntiāvit*, Brutus, as consul, declared the omens.

329. Appositives and predicate nouns agree in gender

* When the verb is only implied, the noun is sometimes called a PREDICATE APPOSITIVE ; as, *Cicerōnem cōsulem creāvērunt*, they appointed Cicero [to be] consul.

with the nouns they qualify, if they have a form of the same gender. Thus:—

Ūsus, magister ēgregius, experience, an excellent master; *philosophia, vitæ magistra*, philosophy, the guide of life; *licentia corruptrix est mōrum*, excessive freedom is a corrupter of character.

a. There was a tendency to make the two nouns agree in number also. Thus:—

Omīttō illās omnium doctrīnārum inventricēs Athēnās, I leave out Athens, that well known discoverer of all the branches of learning (cf. Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 4, 13).

b. When a verb has a complementary infinitive (see 532) dependent upon it, its predicate noun is still nominative; as:—

Nōlō esse scelerātōrum laudātor, I would not be a eulogist of rascals.

c. In the poets a similar usage is sometimes found, by which an infinitive which should have a subject is used without a subject, and the predicate noun which would be in the accusative is attracted into the nominative; as:—

Uxor invicti Iovis esse nescis, know'st thou not thou art the wife of Jove invincible?

330. A verb sometimes agrees with a predicate noun, or a noun in apposition with the subject, especially if it is nearer than the subject. Thus:—

Amantium irae amoris integratiō est, the quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love (Ter., *An.*, iii., 3, 23); *Tungri, civitās Galliae, fontem habet insignem*, the Tungri, a state of Gaul, have a remarkable fountain (Plin., *N. H.*, xxxi., 2 (8), 12).

NOTE. This is always the case when the appositive is the name of a person.

Kindred Constructions.

331. Instead of a predicate noun (nominative or accusative), occur also:—

(1.) A dative of service (see 385); as, *hōc mihī erat cūrae*.

(2.) An ablative with *prō* (see 430); as, *prō filiō eum habēbat*.

(3.) A genitive after *locō*, in place of, or *in numerō*, in the number of.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

332. ADJECTIVES, ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, and PARTICIPLES agree with their nouns in *gender, number, and case*.

333. When such words are applied to their nouns directly they are called ATTRIBUTIVES. Thus: —

Bonus vir, a good man; *benīgna māter*, a kind mother; *haec rēs*, this thing.

334. When they are applied indirectly (by means of a verb expressed or implied) they are called PREDICATE adjectives, etc. Thus: —

Mea māter est benīgna, my mother is kind; *hae lēgēs ūtilissimae dūcuntur*, these laws are considered most beneficial; *hae sunt vērae dīvitiae*, this is real riches.

NOTE. Appositives and attributives assume the thing said of the noun which they qualify; predicate nouns, adjectives, etc., affirm it.

335. Adjectives * belonging to two or more nouns of the same gender are put in the plural. Thus: —

Et hīc imperātor et ille scriptor praeclārī sunt, both this general and that writer are famous.

336. When the nouns are of different genders, if they denote things with life, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; if they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter. Thus: —

Pater mihī et māter mortuī sunt, my father and mother

* Whatever is said of the agreement of adjectives applies also, of course, to adjective pronouns and participles.

are dead; *rēgna*, *imperia*, *nōbilitātēs*, *honōrēs*, *dīvitiae*, *in cāsū sita sunt*, kingdoms, offices, distinctions, honors, riches, depended on chance.

NOTE. This is the more common use with a *predicate* adjective.

337. Or the adjective may be —

(1.) Repeated with each noun; as: —

Semprōniae multae facētiaē multusque lepōs inerat, Sempronia was gifted with much wit and grace.

(2.) Expressed with one noun and understood with the others; as: —

Hominis ūtilitātī agrī omnēs et maria pārent, all lands and seas serve the needs of mankind.

NOTE. These two uses are perhaps the more common with *attributive* adjectives. (Compare the agreement of the verb with several subjects, 319-321.)

338. Two adjectives in the singular often belong to a plural noun; as: —

Cum legiōnibus sēcundā et tertiā, with the second and third legions.

a. A singular noun, denoting different instances of the same kind, may have several adjectives agreeing with it; as: —

Bellum Pūnicum et Hispāniēse, the Punic and Spanish wars.

339. Any part of speech used as a mere word is treated as a neuter noun, and takes an adjective in the neuter singular. Thus: —

Suprēmum valē dīxit, he uttered the last farewell; *crās istud quandō venit?* when is that to-morrow you mention coming?

340. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative denoting the same person or thing, a predicate adjective is sometimes put in the dative, sometimes in the accusative, as if the subject had been expressed. Thus: —

Dā mihī iūstō sanctōque vidērī, grant me to seem just and holy; *sī cīvī Rōmānō licet esse Gādītānum*, if a Roman citizen may [also] be a citizen of Cades.

341. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a clause sometimes agrees with a predicate noun, or with a noun in apposition with the subject, if these are nearer the participle. (Cf. 330.) Thus:—

Nōn omnis error stultitia est dīcenda, not every mistake is to be called folly; *illōrum urbem ut prōpūgnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs*, [he said] their city stood as a bulwark in the way of the barbarians.

a. An adjective which belongs in sense to a genitive is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends. Thus:—

Ad māiōra initia rērum dūcentibus fātīs, the fates leading to the beginnings of greater things.

b. An adjective belonging to a noun upon which a partitive genitive depends sometimes takes the gender of that genitive; as:—

Vēlōcissimum omnium animālium est delphīnus, the swiftest of all animals is the dolphin.

c. An adjective which belongs in sense to the antecedent of a relative pronoun is often put into the relative clause and made to agree with the relative. Thus:—

Inter iocōs quos inconditōs iaciunt, among the rude jests which they bandy about.

NOTE. This is the usual arrangement with numerals, comparatives, and superlatives. Thus: *nocte quam in terrīs ūltimam ēgit*, the last night he spent on earth; *Aesculāpius, quī primus volnus obligāvisse dicitur*, Æsculapius, who is said to have been the first to bind up a wound.

AGREEMENT OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

342. RELATIVE PRONOUNS agree with their antecedents in *gender* and *number*, but their *case* depends upon

the construction of the clause to which they belong.*
Thus : —

Puer quī legit, the boy who reads ; *egō nōn sum quālis eram*, I am not such as I was ; *Deus, cūius mūnere vivimus, cui nūllus est similis, quem colimus, ā quō facta sunt omnia, est aeternus*, God, by whose bounty we live, whom none is like unto, whom we worship, by whom all things were made, is eternal.

a. The relative pronoun seems to have been originally an adjective pronoun agreeing with a noun in its own clause and referring to another case of the same noun with a demonstrative or similar word in the antecedent clause. Examples of such use still occurred in classical Latin ; as : —

Erant omnīnō duo itinera quibus itineribus domō exīre possent, there were only two routes by which (routes) they could go from home (Cæs., *B. G.*, i., 6).

b. Usually, however, only one of these nouns is expressed ; as : —

(1.) The antecedent noun expressed ; as : —

Tantae multitudinis quantam capit urbs nostra concursus est ad mē factus, there was a gathering to meet me of a crowd as large as our city contains (Cic.).

(2.) The noun in the relative clause expressed ; as : —

Quibus dē rēbus ad mē scrīpsistī cōram vidēbimus, we will see about the things of which you wrote me when we meet (Cic.) ; *in quem primum ēgressi sunt locum Trōia vocātur*, the first place at which they landed is called Troy (Līv.).

c. The noun is most commonly thus expressed in the relative clause only : —

(1.) When, as in the examples, the relative clause precedes. A demonstrative then often stands in the second clause ; as : —

Ad quās rēs aptissimī erimus, in iis potissimum ēlabōrābimus, we shall toil most earnestly in those things for which we are best fitted.

* The rule applies, of course, not only to relative pronouns proper, but to all pronouns used to refer to words in clauses other than their own.

(2.) When the noun is in apposition with some word in the antecedent clause, or with the antecedent clause itself; as:—

Santonēs nōn longē ā Tolōsātium fīnibus absunt, quae cīvitās est in prōvinciā, the Santones are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the Province (Caes.).

d. Sometimes the relative clause comes between the antecedent noun and the rest of the antecedent clause. The antecedent then usually has the case of the relative. Thus:—

Ūrbem quam statuō vestra est, the city which I am building is yours.

e. Occasionally the relative takes the case of the antecedent instead of its own proper case. Thus:—

Cum scribās et aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōsuēstī, when you write and speak of some one of the things you are wont to speak of (Cic., *Fam.*, v., 14, 1).

NOTE. *d* and *e* are called cases of ATTRACTION, and are rare in classical prose.

343. When two or more clauses in which the relative has different constructions refer to the same antecedent, sometimes the relative is repeated in different cases (as in the third example under 342), sometimes only the first relative is expressed and the others are either omitted or represented by demonstratives. Thus:—

Bocchus cum peditibus, quōs fīlius ēius addūxerat, neque in priōre pūgnā adfuerant, Rōmānōs invādunt, Bocchus and the infantry which his son had brought and [which] had not taken part in the earlier battle attack the Romans; *Brūtus ille cui Caesar ignōverat et eum postea fīlium ferē habuerat*, that Brutus whom Caesar had pardoned and had afterwards treated almost like a son.

a. When a predicate noun is used with a relative, the pronoun commonly agrees with the predicate noun rather than with the antecedent. Thus:—

Carcer ille quae lautumiae vocantur, that dungeon which is called the “Stone Quarry.”

b. But if the sentence is negative or if the predicate noun is a proper name, the relative agrees with its antecedent as by the general rule. Thus :—

Nūllum factum quod stultitia appellārī potest laude dīgnum est, no act which can be called folly is worthy of praise ; *flūmen quod nōminātur Rhēnus*, the river which is called the Rhine.

344. A relative having more than one antecedent is always plural, but its gender is regulated like that of adjectives (see 336 and 337). Thus :—

Nīnus et Semīramis quī Babylōna condiderant, Ninus and Semiramis who had founded Babylon ; *nāvēs et captīvōs* quae ad Chium capta erant*, the ships and prisoners which had been taken at Chios ; *tū et pater, quī in convīviō erūtis*, you and father, who were at the feast.

CŌNSTRŪCTIŌ AD SĒNSUM.

345. Sometimes the various kinds of words whose agreements have been treated in the foregoing sections regulate their agreement not by the grammatical form as described, but in accordance with the real meaning involved. This is called CŌNSTRŪCTIŌ AD SĒNSUM, construction according to the meaning. It is particularly common where the word which settles the agreement is a collective noun.

346. Thus a plural verb is often used :—

(1.) When the subject is a collective word ; as :—

Uterque eōrum ex castrīs exercitum ēdūcunt, both of them lead their armies out of camp (Cæs.) ; *pars epulīs onerant mēnsās*, some load the tables with food (Verg.).

a. Abstract nouns, and nouns like *mīles*, *eques*, etc., are often used collectively ; as, *nōbilitās* for “nobles,” *eques* for “the cavalry.”

NOTE. The plural verb serves to bring out more distinctly the individu-

* Treated as “things.”

ality of the persons meant by the collective noun. The construction is rare in simple sentences in Cicero, Cæsar, and Sallust, common in Livy, and especially frequent in poetry.

(2.) With a singular subject combined with *cum* and the ablative; as: —

Bocchus cum peditibus postrēmam Rōmānōrum aciem invādunt, Bocchus and his infantry attack the rear of the Roman line (Sall., *Iug.*).

347. So also the number and gender of an adjective sometimes follow the sense implied: —

(1.) In a collective noun or its equivalent; as: —

Pars per agrōs dilāpsī . . . suam quisque spem exsequentēs, part, scattering through the country, . . . following each his own hope (Līv.); *Latium Capuaque agrō multātī*, Latium and Capua were fined in land (*i. e.*, forced to give up part of their territory) (Līv.).

a. In such cases, when the verb is plural (see 346) the adjective is always plural.

b. Sometimes, especially in poetry, only the gender is regulated by the *cōnstrūctiō ad sēnsū*. Thus: —

Pars arduus altīs pulverulentus equīs furit, part raised aloft on tall horses dash about covered with dust (Verg.).

c. Sallust often, and other writers sometimes, thus use a neuter adjective with several feminine nouns which denote things. Thus: —

Plērōsque vĕlōcitās et regiō hostibus ignāra tūtāta sunt, their speed and the enemy's ignorance of the country saved most of them (Sall.).

(2.) When the word with which the adjective would agree is implied in a possessive pronoun. Thus: —

Sōlius meum peccātum corrigī nōn potest, my sin only cannot be made good (Cic.); cf. *pūgna Rōmāna stabilis suō pondere incumbētium in hostem*, the fighting of the Romans

[was] invincible as they bore down upon the enemy with the very weight of their line (Līv.).

348. Examples of similar agreement on the part of the relative are —

(1.) Antecedent a collective word ; as : —

Equitātum, quōs mīserat, the cavalry, whom he had sent ;
genus, quī premuntur, a class who are crushed (Cic.).

(2.) Antecedent not a collective word ; as : —

Abundantia eārum rērum, quae mortālēs prīma putant, a plenty of those things which mankind imagine of the first importance (Sall.).

(3.) Antecedent implied in a possessive pronoun, or similar adjective ; as : —

Nostrum cōsiliū laudandū est, quī nōluerim, my design is praiseworthy, who was unwilling (Cic.).

For the remaining syntax of adjectives and pronouns, see 438 ff.

CASES (*Cāsūs*).

NOMINATIVE (*Nōminātīvus*).

349. Except as already treated (namely, as the subject of a verb or as an appositive or predicate noun), the NOMINATIVE is used only as follows, and that rarely.

(1.) In the poets.

a. With an interjection, to make an exclamation ; as : —

Ēn egō, vester Ascanius, here am I, your Ascanius (Verg., *Ae.*, v., 672).

b. Instead of the vocative ; as : —

Ō vir fortis atque amīcus, O brave man and friendly (Ter.).

(2.) In the poets and late prose writers, as the mere name of a word independently of the construction of the sentence. Thus : —

Resonent mihi "Cynthia" silvae, let the woods reëcho me "Cynthia" (Prop., i., 18, 31).

GENITIVE (*Genetivus*).

350. The GENITIVE is properly the case which expresses the relation of *one noun to another*, and is in its nature equivalent to an adjective.

NOTE. The genitive came to be used with certain adjectives and verbs, as well as with nouns. Its various uses may be thus tabulated:—

SUBJECTIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
Genitive of Source, Cause, or Material.	With Nouns of Action or Feeling.
Genitive of Possession.	“ Adjectives.
Partitive Genitive.	“ Verbs { of Pity, etc.
Genitive of Characteristic.	“ { “ Feeling.
Predicate Genitive.	“ { “ Remembering, etc.
	“ { “ Accusing, etc.
	“ { Interest and <i>Rēfert</i> .
	Genitive of Price.

351. Any noun limiting the meaning of another and not denoting the same thing is regularly put in the genitive. Thus:—

Glōriæ amor, love of glory; *arma Achillis*, the arms of Achilles; *nemorum cūstōs*, the guardian of groves.

NOTE. The difference between an appositive and a limiting genitive is that the appositive denotes the *same thing* as the noun modified by it, while the genitive regularly denotes a *different thing*, although occasionally used like an appositive, as in *vīlium iræ*, *urbs Rōmæ*. (Cf. 326.)

352. Many relations which in English are expressed by prepositions are denoted in Latin by the genitive. Some of the commonest are —

- (1.) Source; as, *sōlis radiī*, the rays of the sun.
- (2.) Cause; as, *dolor podagrae*, pain from the gout.
- (3.) Possession; as, *Caesaris domus*, the house of Cæsar.
- (4.) Material; as, *montēs aurī*, mountains of gold.

353. (1.) A genitive is called SUBJECTIVE when it denotes the subject of an action or feeling implied in the noun it limits, or indicates that to which a thing belongs.

(2.) It is called OBJECTIVE when it denotes the object

towards which the action or feeling implied in its noun is directed. Thus : —

SUBJECTIVE.

virōrum facta, deeds of men.

animī dolor, pain of spirit.

īra Iūnōnis, the wrath of Juno.

OBJECTIVE.

odium vitī, hatred of wrong.

virtūtis amor, love of virtue.

dēsiderium otī, a longing for rest.

a. Sometimes the same expression may serve as either a subjective or an objective genitive, and the context must show which is meant. Thus : *Caesaris amor* may mean somebody's love for Caesar, or Caesar's love for somebody else.

b. To avoid ambiguity, or to secure greater emphasis, a preposition with its case is often used instead of the genitive ; as, *odium ergā Karthāginiēnsēs*, hatred towards the Carthaginians.

c. Two genitives are sometimes used with the same noun, one being usually subjective, the other objective. Thus : —

Prō veteribus Helvētiōrum iniūriis populī Rōmānī, for the old wrongs of the Helvetians against the Roman people (Caes.) ; *illius administrātiō prōvinciae*, his performance of the duties of his office (Cic.).

d. The noun upon which a genitive depends is regularly omitted in certain idiomatic phrases ; as, *ad Dīānae*, near Diana's temple ; sometimes in other expressions ; as, *ō miserae sortis !* O ye of unhappy lot ! *solet mihi in mentem venīre illius temporis*, the thought of that time is wont to come into my mind.

e. Especially is it omitted in expressions of comparison where in English "that of" is used. Thus : —

Numae rēgnum pācātius erat quam Rōmulī, Numa's reign was more peaceful than that of Romulus.

PARTITIVE GENITIVE.

354. A word denoting a PART is limited by the genitive of the whole whose part is taken. Thus : *māgnus hominum numerus*, a large number of men.

355. The partitive genitive is especially common with —

(1.) Numerals and nouns of number or quantity ; as : —

Equitum centum quīnquāgintā interfectī, a hundred and fifty horsemen [were] killed (Curtius) ; *permāgnum pondus argenti*, a very great weight of silver.

(2.) Adverbs denoting quantity or amount (used as nouns) ; as : —

Satis ēloquentiae, parum sapientiae, enough eloquence, but too little wisdom.

(3.) Adverbs of place or direction ; as : —

Ubi terrarum sumus? where in the world are we? *quō amentiae prōgressi estis*, to what a pitch of madness have ye gone?

a. The word of direction is generally, as in the example, used figuratively.

(4.) Comparatives and superlatives ; as : —

Oratōrum praestantissimus, most famous of orators.

(5.) Neuter pronouns and adjectives, where in English the adjective agrees with the noun ; as : —

Plūs ēloquentiae, more eloquence ; *tantum fidei*, so much honor ; *hōc aetātis*, at this time of life.

a. Like partitive genitives are the redundant genitives *adhūc locōrum*, till now (Plaut.) ; *postea loci*, afterwards (Sall.) ; *interea loci*, meanwhile (Ter.) ; etc.

b. *Prīdiē* and *postrīdiē* are followed by a genitive which seems to be partitive in its nature ; as, *postrīdiē eius diēi*, the day after that day (Caes.) ; *prīdiē insidiarum*, the day before the plot (Tac.).

GENITIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC OR QUALITY.

356. The genitive, with an adjective agreeing with it, is used to denote a property, quality, or characteristic. Thus : —

Adulēscēns summae audāciae, a youth of the utmost daring (Sall.) ; *fossa pedum vīginti*, a ditch twenty feet wide (Caes.).

PREDICATE GENITIVE.

357. The genitive is often used in the predicate with *sum* and like verbs to denote the owner of something, or the person (or thing) whose duty, characteristic, or business a given thing is. Thus: —

Haec domus est Caesaris, this house is Caesar's; *temeritūs est flōrentis aetātis, prūdētia senectūtis*, rashness belongs to the bloom of life, discretion to old age (Cic.).

NOTE. The predicate genitive bears the same relation to the direct genitive which a predicate noun bears to an appositive.

KINDRED CONSTRUCTIONS.

358. Instead of the foregoing genitives the following constructions are sometimes used: —

(1.) Instead of a subjective genitive an adjective is often used, either agreeing directly with the noun on which the genitive would depend, or serving as a predicate adjective. Thus: —

Amor patrius, a father's love; *nōn est mentīrī meum*, it is not my habit to lie.

a. An adjective less commonly takes the place of an objective genitive; as, *metus hostilis*, fear of the enemy.

(2.) Instead of the possessive genitive of a personal pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is almost invariably used; as: —

Liber meus, my book; *tuās litterās exspectō*, I await a letter from you. (Cf. also the second example under 1.)

a. The possessive pronoun is also sometimes used for an objective genitive; as, *mea iniūria*, injury to me (Sallust).

(3.) Instead of a possessive or objective genitive a dative of possession (see 384 below) is sometimes used. Thus: —

Sē tertium esse cui fātum foret urbis potīrī, [that] he was the third whose destiny it was to be master of the city (Cic.);

huic causae patrōnus exstiti, I have come forward as champion of [for] this cause (Cic., *Rōsc. Am.*, 2, 5).

(4.) Instead of a partitive genitive a partitive apposition (see 325, c, above) is used; as: —

Interfectōrēs, pars in forum, pars Syrācūsās pergunt, some of the slayers proceed to the market place, others to Syracuse.

(5.) Sometimes also, instead of a partitive genitive, an ablative with *ex* or *dē*, or *in*, or an accusative with *inter*, is used; as: —

Nēmō dē eīs, no one of them; *acerrimus ex sēnsibus*, the sharpest of the senses; *prīmus inter omnēs*, first among all.

(6.) Instead of a genitive of characteristic an ablative of characteristic (see 411 below) is often used; as: —

Homō antīquā virtūte, a man of old-time virtue.

a. The genitive is used here in questions of number, measure, weight, time, space, kind, etc.; as: —

Fīlius annōrum novem, a son nine years old; *corōna aurea parvī ponderis*, a golden wreath of little weight; *hūius modī quaestiō*, a question of this sort.

b. The ablative is used of physical and external characteristics; as: —

Āgēsilāus statūra fuit humili et corpore exiguō, Agesilaus was of low stature and slight frame; *homō māximā barbā*, a man with a very long beard; *flūmen difficilī transitū ripisque praeruptis*, a river of difficult passage and steep banks.

c. Otherwise the two cases are used indifferently.

NOTE. For the idiomatic accusative, in a few expressions, instead of a genitive of characteristic, see 398, b, below. For the genitive with *opus* and *ūsus*, see 417, a, below.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

359. (1.) The genitive may be used to complete the meaning of certain adjectives.

(2.) In classical Latin these are chiefly adjectives denoting DESIRE, KNOWLEDGE, MEMORY, PARTICIPATION, POWER, FULLNESS, LIKENESS, and their opposites.

360. The adjectives most commonly used with the genitive are —

avidus, greedy.

cupidus, eager.

studiōsus, zealous.

fāstidiōsus, squeamish.

gnārus, knowing.

īgnārus, ignorant.

peritus, skilled.

imperitus, unskilled.

prūdēns, discreet.

imprūdēns, indiscreet.

prōvidus, foreseeing.

cōnsciū, conscious of.

īnsciū, ignorant.

rudis, untaught.

memor, mindful.

immemor, unmindful.

particeps, sharing in.

compos, having control over.

cōsors, partaking.

expers, having no part in.

inops, needy.

īnsuētus, unaccustomed.

īnsolēns, unaccustomed.

plēnus, full.

inānis, empty.

similis, like.

adfīnis, allied to.

Thus : —

Avidus laudis, eager for praise ; *memor virtūtis*, mindful of valor ; *plēna timōris*, full of fear ; *similis patris*, like his father ; etc.

a. Sallust and Livy began to use the genitive with adjectives more freely, and the Augustan poets spread the construction very widely ; cf. *integer vītæ*, pure of life (Hor.) ; *incertus sententiæ*, unstable in opinion.

For *animī*, etc., with adjectives, see 426, b.

361. Participles in -ns from transitive verbs, when used as adjectives and thus denoting ENDURING qualities, often take a genitive, while in their participial use they take the accusative. Thus : —

Epaminōndās erat adeō vērītātis dīligēns ut nē iocō quidem mentīrētur, Epaminondas was so devoted to truth that he would not lie even in jest ; *semper adpetentēs glōriæ*

fuistis, you have always been eager for glory; but *mare, terram adpetēns*, aiming at possession of the sea and land (on a given occasion).

Kindred Constructions.

362. Instead of a genitive, many of these adjectives sometimes take other constructions; as:—

(1.) An accusative with a preposition. Thus:—

Avidus in dīreptiōnēs, greedy for expeditions of plunder (Livy).

(2.) An ablative with a preposition. Thus:—

Perītus dē agrīcultūra, skilled in husbandry (Varro).

(3.) An ablative of specification (see 412). Thus:—

Praestāns ingenio, preëminent in natural endowment (Cic.).

(4.) A dative. Thus:—

Lupō similis, like a wolf.

a. Similis and *dissimilis* seem to be used by Cicero with the genitive usually in speaking of persons, with the dative always in speaking of things.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

363. The genitive is also used with several classes of verbs, as follows:—

364. (1.) Verbs denoting PITY — as *misereor* and *miserescō* — take the genitive. Thus:—

Miserēminī sociōrum, have pity for your allies (Cic.); *miserescite rēgis*, pity the king (Verg.).

(2.) The impersonals *miseret*, *paenitet*, *piget*, *pudet*, and *taedet*, take the genitive of the object towards which the feeling is exercised, and the accusative of the person who has the feeling. Thus:—

Mea māter, tuī mē miseret, meī piget, mother, I pity you and am disgusted with myself (Accius); *eōs ineptiarum paenitet*, they repent of their follies (Cic.); *mē civitātis*

mōrum piget taedet^{que}, I am disgusted and weary with the manners of the state (Sall.).

365. Verbs of REMEMBERING and FORGETTING — as *meminī*, *reminiscor*, *oblivīscor* — take the genitive. Thus: —

Meminī vivōrum, I remember the living (Cic.); *reminiscī veteris fūmae*, to bear in mind the old reputation (Nep.); *iniuriarum oblivīscor*, I forget injuries (Nep.).

a. One verb of pitying and one of remembering commonly take the accusative; namely, *miserārī* and *recordārī* (both deponents of the first conjugation).

b. Other verbs of these classes occasionally take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun.

366. Verbs of REMINDING and WARNING take a genitive of the thing with an accusative of the person. Thus: —

Admonēbat alium egestātis, *alium cupiditātis suae*, he would remind one of his want of money, another of his pet passion (Sall.).

367. Verbs of ACCUSING, CONVICTING, CONDEMNING, and ACQUITTING, take a genitive of the crime or of the penalty. Thus: —

Miltiadēs accūsātus est prōditionis, Miltiades was accused of treachery; *Cicerō Verrem avāritiae nimiae coarguit*, Cicero accused Verres of excessive greed; *iam mē ipse inertiae condemnō*, I already condemn myself for my inactivity; *Caelius iūdex absolvit iniuriarum eum, qui Lūciliū laeserat*, Caelius as juryman voted to acquit of wrong the man who had injured Lucilius.

a. The genitive is used to indicate the penalty when it is an *indefinite* sum of money as a fine. The genitives *capitis*, *pecūniae*, *capitālis poenae*, *vōtī*, and some others, are also used in a sort of midway sense between charge and penalty. Thus: —

Quantī est damnātus, how much was he fined? *capitis hominem innocentem condemnārunt*, they condemned a guiltless man to death (cf. Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 54, 233).

b. The penalty is otherwise expressed by the ablative (always with *multāre* or when it is a *fixed* sum of money as a fine), or by *ad* or *in* with an accusative, and, in the poets, rarely by a dative.

c. The verbs of the last two classes (366 and 367) sometimes take, instead of the genitive, an ablative with *dē* or the accusative of a neuter pronoun. Thus : —

Dē aede Tellūris mē admonēs, you remind me about the temple of the Earth (Cic.) ; *eōs hōc moneō*, I warn them of this (Cic.) ; *accūsāre dē neglegentiā*, to accuse of negligence (Cic.) ; *dē vī condemnātī sunt*, they were condemned for violence (Cic.) ; *sī id mē nōn accūsās*, if you do not accuse me of this (Plaut.).*

d. Some verbs of accusing, etc., take simply the accusative of the crime instead of the accusative of the person with the genitive of the crime. So especially *carpō*, *culpō*, *crīminor*, *pūniō*, *reprehendō*, and some less common verbs.

Interest and Rēfert.

368. The impersonal verbs *interest* and *rēfert* take a genitive of the person (or personified thing) whose interest they denote. Thus : —

Interest omnium rēctē facere, to do right is everybody's concern (Cic.).

Rēfert omnium animadvertī in malōs, all men are interested in having the bad punished (Tac.).

a. So far as there is a difference in the two verbs, *rēfert* applies rather to outside or material things, *interest* to matters of the mind or character. Cf. the examples.

NOTE. This genitive seems to have started with *interest* as a sort of predicative genitive of possession (*patris interest* = it is among a father's possessions), and then to have been transferred to *rēfert* through the analogy in the meanings of the verbs.

369. Instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns,

* With verbs of accusing, etc., the neuter pronoun in the accusative is mostly found in the dramatic poets.

the ablative singular feminine of the corresponding possessives is used. Thus:—

Tuā et meā māximē interest, tē valēre, it is very greatly for the interest of both you and myself that you should be well (Cic.) ; *meā nihil rēfert*, it is of no concern to me (Ter.).

a. The ablative feminine of the possessive pronoun is common with *rēfert* ; the genitive construction is said to occur before Livy only in one instance in Sallust (*Iug.*, 111) Cicero prefers *interest* to *rēfert*, and uses it with either construction indifferently.

NOTE. The origin of this ablative construction is still in dispute. It seems most probable that the construction started with *rēfert* as *meā rē fert*, equivalent to *ē meā rē fert*, it points in the direction of my interests, (cf. *ē rē publicā est*, it is in accordance with the interests of the state), and was then transferred to *interest*. But see J. H. Schmalz, in *Handbuch der Altertumswiss.*, ii., 271.

b. Instead of the above constructions is sometimes found *ad* with an accusative, and very rarely a simple accusative or a dative. Thus:—

Ad honōrem meum interest, it concerns my reputation (Cic.) ; *quid tē igitur rettulit*, of what concern was that to you? (Plaut.)

370. (1.) The degree of interest is expressed by an adverb or the accusative singular neuter of an adjective (used adverbially), or, if there is no genitive of the person interested, by a genitive (of price; see 371).

(2.) That which causes the interest is expressed by a clause as the subject of the verb or in apposition with a neuter pronoun which serves as subject. *Rēfert* also sometimes takes a personal subject. Thus:—

Māximē interest, quem ad modum quaeque rēs audiātur, it makes the greatest difference, how each point is received; *multum interest reī familiāris tuae, tē quam primum venīre*, it is of much importance for your property that you come as soon as possible; *quod permāgnī interest, prō necessariō saepe habētur*, what is of great advantage is often regarded as necessary.

For the genitive instead of an ablative with verbs of ceasing or freeing from, see 414 ; with verbs of plenty, see 409 ; with *potior*, see 419, *b* ; for the locative *animi* with verbs of emotion, see 426, *b*.

GENITIVE OF PRICE.

371. The genitive is used to denote *indefinite* price or value. Thus : —

Voluptātem virtūs minimī facit, virtue holds pleasure of very little value ; *ēmī hortōs tantī, quantī voluī*, I bought the grounds for the price I wished.

372. The genitives most commonly so used are —

<i>tantī</i> , so much.	<i>permāgnī</i> ,	} at a very high price.
<i>quantī</i> , as much, or how much ?	<i>plūrimī</i> ,	
	<i>māximī</i> ,	
<i>plūris</i> , more.	<i>tantīdem</i> ,	at the same price.
<i>minōris</i> , less.	<i>quantīvīs</i> ,	} however much you please.
<i>minimī</i> , very little.	<i>quantīlubet</i> ,	
<i>parvī</i> , little.	<i>quantīcumque</i> ,	at whatever price.
<i>māgnī</i> , at a high price.		

And rarely *multī*, much, and *māiōris*, at a higher price.

a. In colloquial language also figuratively —

<i>assis</i> , worth an as.	<i>pīlī</i> , worth a hair.
<i>floccī</i> , “ a bit of wool.	<i>pēnsī</i> , “ weighing.
<i>naucī</i> , “ a trifle.	<i>teruncī</i> , “ a copper.
<i>nihilī</i> , “ nothing.	

And *hūius* (indicating a gesture of disdain).

For the Ablative of Price, see 408.

DATIVE (*Datīvus*).

373. The DATIVE is used chiefly to indicate the person or thing *indirectly concerned* in the action of a verb, and for other similar relations.

NOTE. The uses of the dative may be summarized as follows : —

Dative of Indirect Object.	Dative of Possessor.
Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage.	Dative of Service.
Ethical Dative.	Dative with Adjectives.
Dative of Agent.	Dative with other Parts of Speech.

DATIVE OF INDIRECT OBJECT.

374. The dative expressing the INDIRECT OBJECT may be used —

(1.) With intransitive verbs. Thus:—

Mea domus tibi patet, my house is open to you (Cic.); *licet nēminī contrā patriam dūcere exercitum*, no one has a right to lead an army against his country (Cic.).

(2.) With transitive verbs in addition to the direct object. Thus:—

Hōc tibi prōmittō, I promise you this (Cic.); *mihī respōsum dedit*, he gave me the answer (Verg.).

375. Several classes of verbs which seem transitive in English are intransitive in Latin, and therefore take their object in the dative.

376. Such are most verbs meaning to FAVOR, PLEASE, TRUST, BELIEVE, HELP, and their opposites; also to COMMAND, OBEY, SERVE, RESIST, ENVY, THREATEN, SPARE, PARDON, BE ANGRY, etc. Thus:—

Illa tibi favet, she favors you (Ovid); *mihī placēbat Pomponius*, Pomponius pleased me (Cic.); *quī sibi fidit*, he who trusts in himself (Hor.); *iniūrātō, sciō, plūs mihī crēdet quam iūrātō tibi*, he will, I know, trust me without an oath more than you upon oath (Plaut., *Am.*, i., 1, 281); *nōn licet suī commodi causā nocēre alterī*, it is not lawful to injure one's neighbor for one's own advantage (Cic.): *imperat aut servit collecta pecūnia cuique*, gathered gold commands or serves its possessor (lit., each one) (Hor.); *quoniam factiōnī inimicōrum resistere nequiverit*, since he could not withstand the faction of his enemies (Sall.); *nōn invidētūr illī aetātī*, that time of life is not exposed to envy (Cic.); *mihī minūbātur*, he threatened me (Cic.); *bonīs nocet quisquis parcit malīs*, he wrongs the good who spares the wicked; *irāscī inimicīs*, to be angry against one's enemies (Caes.).

a. *Iuvō*, help, and its compounds; *laedō*, injure; *dēlectō*,

oblectō, delight, and sometimes other verbs of these meanings, are treated as transitives and take the accusative. Thus :

Caesar ad Lingonās litterās nūntiōsque mīsit, nē eōs frūmentō nēve aliā rē iuvārent, Caesar sent a letter and messages to the Lingones [bidding them] not to aid them with grain or anything else (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 26) ; *hīc pulvis oculum meum laedit*, this dust hurts my eye.

377. (1.) Verbs compounded with the prepositions *ad*, *ante*, *com*, *in*, *inter*, *ob*, *post*, *prae*, *prō*, *sub*, *super*, commonly have intransitive meanings, and therefore take a dative of indirect object. Thus : —

Neque enim ādsentior iīs, for I do not agree with those (Cic., *Am.*, 4, 13) ; *quantum nātūra hominis pecudibus antecēdit*, as much as man's nature has the advantage over the brutes (Cic., *Off.*, i., 30, 105) ; *omnibus negōtiīs nōn interfuit solum sed praefuit*, he not only took part in, but presided over, all the transactions (Cic., *Fam.*, i., 6) ; *nec umquam succumbet inimicīs*, nor will he ever yield to his foes (Cic., *Dēiot.*, 13, 36).

(2.) But not infrequently they are transitive, and then take (like any transitive verb) a direct object in the accusative, with or without the dative of indirect object. Thus : —

Convocat milites, he calls together the soldiers ; *mūnus obīre*, to perform a duty (Cic., *Am.*, 27) ; *illum praefecit exercitūi*, he set him over the army.

(3.) Sometimes they are used to denote relations of PLACE, and then they take a preposition with its case instead of the dative.* Thus : —

Īnferre sīgna in hostēs, to march against the enemy ; *ad-esse in senātū*, to be at a meeting of the senate.

378. Several verbs take the dative in one sense, the accusative in another. Thus, especially : —

*This is especially common with words compounded with *ad* or *in*. When used figuratively all these words usually take the dative (or, if transitive, the accusative ; as, *subīre pericula*, to undergo danger).



	WITH DATIVE.	WITH ACCUSATIVE.
<i>metuere,</i> }	fear, be anxious, <i>for</i>	be afraid <i>of</i> somebody
<i>timēre,</i> }	somebody or some- thing.	or something.
<i>cōsulere,</i>	take counsel <i>for</i> .	ask advice of, consult.
<i>prōspicere,</i> }	provide <i>for</i> .	foresee.
<i>prōvidēre,</i> }		
<i>cavēre,</i>	take care <i>for</i> , guard.	guard against.
<i>moderārī,</i>	control.	regulate, arrange.
<i>temperāre,</i>	restrain.	temper (by mixing).

379. *Dōnō*, present, *circumdō*, surround, and *adspergō*, sprinkle or scatter upon, take either a dative of the person with an accusative of the thing, or an accusative of the person with an ablative of the thing. Thus:—

Mihī librum dōnāvit, he presented a book to me; *mē librō dōnāvit*, he presented me with a book.

Urbī mūrū circumdat, he puts a wall round the city; *urbem mūrō circumdat*, he surrounds the city with a wall.

Ārae sanguinem adspergit, he sprinkles blood upon the altar; *āram sanguine adspergit*, he sprinkles the altar with blood.

380. Many verbs compounded with *ab*, *dē*, *ex*, *prō*, or *circum*, and the verb *ademō*, take a dative where an ablative of separation (see 413) might be expected. Thus:—

Bona mihī extorsistī, you have wrung my goods from me; *mulierī anulū detrāxit*, he took the ring from the woman (*i. e.*, her finger); *id mihī tū, C. Verrēs, ēripuistī atque abstulistī*, this you have robbed me of and taken from me, Gaius Verres (*Cic., in Caecil., 5, 19*).

a. The dative is *always* used of persons and *sometimes* of things. The action is thus regarded as something done *to* the object.

b. But with things the ablative with or without a preposition is perhaps more common, especially if an idea of place is involved. Thus:—

Illum ē periculō ēripuit, he snatched him from the danger (Caes., *B. G.*, iv., 12).

DATIVE OF ADVANTAGE OR DISADVANTAGE

(*Datīvus commodi vel incommodi*).

381. With many verbs the dative denotes the person or thing to whose advantage or disadvantage something is done. Thus:—

Nōn scholae sed vītae dīscimus, we learn, not for school, but for life; *nōn solum nōbīs dīvitēs esse volumus, sed liberis, propinquis, amicis māximēque rei pūblīcae*, not for ourselves only do we wish to be rich, but for our children, relatives, friends, and, most of all, for the state.

a. So *nūbere alicui*, marry (*lit.*, veil one's self for), *vacāre alicui rei*, have leisure for, and expressions like *quid tibi vis?* what are you after? (*lit.* what do you want for yourself?); *quid huic hominī faciās?* what can you do with (for) this fellow? (But cf. 412, a.)

b. So also the dative of a participle in expressions defining a place, as:—

Locum, quī nunc saeptus dēscendentibus inter duos lūcōs est, asyllum aperit, he opened as a place of refuge the spot which you find hedged in as you go down between the Two Groves (*Liv.*, i., 8, 5).

ETHICAL DATIVE (*Datīvus ethicus*).

382. A special variety of the dative of advantage is the use of a personal pronoun in lively style to indicate the person interested, where the sense strictly requires no such pronoun. Thus:—

Utinam ille omnēs sēcum suās cōpiās edūxisset! Tongilium mihi edūxit, would that he had taken out all his forces with him! He has taken (me) Tongilius (*Cic.*, *Cat.*, ii., 2, 4); *at tibi repente paucīs post diēbus venit ad mē Canīnius*, but a few days later Caninius suddenly comes to me (*Cic.*, *Fam.*, ix., 2, 1).

DATIVE OF AGENT (*Datīvus agentis*).

383. With the gerundive and *sum* the dative denotes the person who has a thing to do. Thus : —

Adhibenda est nōbīs dīlīgētia, we must employ diligence (Cic.); *certē mihī verendum nōn erat, nē quid, hōc parricīdā cīvium interfectō, invidiae mihī in posteritātem redundāret*, I certainly did not have to fear that if I killed this murderer of his countrymen, any flood of unpopularity would rise up about me in the future (Cic., *Cat.*, i., 12, 29); *nōbīs, cum semel occidit brevis lūx, nox est perpetua ūna dormienda*, we have to sleep through one long lasting night, when once our life's brief day is o'er (Catull.).

a. To avoid a possible ambiguity, or to give the notion of agency greater prominence, the ablative with *ā* (*ā*) must be used; as : —

Aguntur bona cīvium, quibus est ā vōbīs cōsulendum, citizens' property is involved, and you must take measures for its protection; *tē ā mē monendum esse putō*, I think I ought to remind you.

b. The dative of agent is also sometimes used with the tenses compounded with the perfect participle. Thus : —

Haec satis sint dicta nōbīs, let that which I have said suffice (Cic., *Tim.*, 10).

DATIVE OF POSSESSOR.

384. The dative is used with *sum* to denote the POSSESSOR,* — the thing owned being the subject of the verb. Thus : —

Sit mihī mēnsa tripēs, let me have a three-legged table (Hor., *Sat.*, i., 3, 13); *est igitur hominī cum deō similitūdō*, man has therefore a likeness with God (Cic., *Lēgg.*, i., 8, 25).

a. The historians sometimes join *volentī*, *cupientī*, or *invītō*, with such a dative, in imitation of a Greek idiom; as : —

* Cf. predicate genitive of possession, 357.

Ut quibusque bellum invītīs aut cupientibus erat, according as war was repugnant or acceptable to each.

DATIVE OF SERVICE.

385. With many verbs the dative denotes the END or PURPOSE of an action. Thus : —

Virtūs neque datur dōnō neque accipitur, virtue is neither given as a gift nor received.

386. The dative of service is most commonly joined with another dative, especially a dative of advantage or a dative of possessor (dative to which and for which). Thus : —

Id tibi honōrī, habētur, that is counted an honor to you (Cic.) ; *mihī māximae est cūrae*, it is a very great anxiety to me (Cic.) ; *spērō nōbīs hanc coniūctiōnem voluptātī fore*, I hope this association will be a pleasure to us (Cic.) ; *cui bonō fuit*, whom did it benefit ? (lit., to whom was it (for) a benefit ?) (Cic.). (Cf. 331, 1.)

IMPERSONAL USE OF PASSIVES.

387. Verbs which take a dative can be used in the passive only impersonally, and the dative is then retained. Thus : —

Mihī numquam persuādērī potuit animōs ēmorī, I never could be persuaded that the soul perishes ; *invidētur prae-stantī flōrentīque fortūnae*, prominent and flourishing success is envied.

DATIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

388. The dative is used with many adjectives to denote the object towards which the quality is directed.

389. Such are especially adjectives meaning USEFUL, PLEASANT, FRIENDLY, FIT, LIKE, INCLINED, READY, EASY, CLEAR, EQUAL, and their opposites ; also those meaning

NEAR, many compounded with *com-*, and adjectives in *-bilis*. Thus: —

Fēlīx tuīs, gracious to your adherents (Verg.); *ōrātiō ingrāta Gallis*, a speech unpleasing to the Gauls (Caes.); *nihil tam est Lysiae diversum quam Isocratēs*, nothing is so different from Lysias as Isocrates; *patri similis*, like his father (Cic.); *prōptus sēditionī*, ready for insurrection (Tac.); *cuius facile est*, it is easy for anybody (Ter.); *falsa vērīs finitima sunt*, the false is next door to the true (Cic.); *mors est terribilis iīs, quōrum cum vitā omnia exstinguuntur*, death is terrible to those who lose all things when they lose their life (Cic., *Par.*, ii.).

390. Instead of the dative, many of these adjectives are also used with a preposition and its case. Especially: —

(1.) Adjectives meaning **USEFUL** or **FIT**, and their opposites, take an accusative with *ad* when they mean *useful* **FOR**, *fit* **FOR**, etc., the dative being commoner if they mean *useful* **TO**, etc. Thus: —

Ūtilis agrīs, beneficial to the fields (Juv.); *homō ad nūllam rem ūtilis*, a man useful for nothing (Cic.).

(2.) Adjectives implying **MOTION** or **TENDENCY** more commonly take the accusative with a preposition. Thus: —

Prōnus ad fidem, readily inclined to faithfulness (Līv.).

(3.) Adjectives of **FEELING** often have an accusative with *in*, *ergā*, or *adversus*. Thus: —

Māter acerba in suōs partūs, a mother harsh to her own offspring (Ovid); *grātus ergā mē*, grateful towards me (Cic.); *grātum adversus tē*, grateful towards you (Cic.).

(4.) *Propior* and *proximus* sometimes take an accusative, like the primitive *prope*. Thus: —

Quod vitium propius virtutem erat, and this fault was pretty nearly a virtue (Sall.); *P. Crassus proximus mare Ōceanum hiemārat*, Publius Crassus had wintered close by the ocean (Caes., *B. G.*, iii., 7).

Cf. also 362.

DATIVE WITH OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

391. The dative is sometimes found with other parts of speech, to express the same sort of relation as with verbs or adjectives. Thus : —

(1.) With adverbs :

Congruenter nātūrae convenienterque vīvere, to live in harmony and agreement with nature (Cic.) ; *proximē castrīs*, next the camp (Caes., *B. C.*, i., 72, 5).

(2.) With a few (verbal) nouns : —

Obtemperātiō lēgibus, obedience to the laws (Cic., *Lēgg.*, i., 15) ; *invidia cōsulī*, envy towards the consul (Sall.).

(3.) With interjections : —

Vae victīs! no quarter ! (lit., woe to the vanquished) ; *hei mihi miserō!* alas ! unhappy me !

(4.) The compound expression *dictō audiēns*, obedient, takes a second dative, as : —

Dictō audientēs esse rēgī dēbēbant, they ought to be obedient to their king.

ACCUSATIVE (*Accūsātīvus*).

NOTE. The uses of the accusative may be summarized as follows : —

Accusative of Direct Object.

Two Accusatives { Verbs of Making, etc.
“ “ Asking, etc.
“ compounded with *Trāns*, etc.

Accusative with Middle Voice.

Cognate Accusative.

Adverbial Accusative.

Accusative of Specification (Synecdochical).

Accusative with Verbal Nouns.

Accusative in Exclamations.

Subject Accusative.

Accusative of Time.

“ “ Place.

“ with Prepositions.

ACCUSATIVE OF DIRECT OBJECT.

392. The accusative is used especially to denote the person or thing *directly* affected by an action. Therefore only transitive verbs have an object in the accusative. Thus : —

Lēgātōs mīttunt, they send ambassadors (Caes.); *animus movet corpus*, the mind moves the body (Cic.); *dā veniam hanc*, grant this indulgence (Ter.).

NOTE. Many verbs are transitive in Latin which are intransitive in English. Indeed, in early Latin very many verbs which were afterwards used with other constructions could take an accusative, the accusative filling with regard to the verb the same place which a genitive fills towards the noun it modifies.

393. The accusative of the active voice becomes the subject-nominative of the passive voice. Thus : —

Lēgātōs mīttunt ; *lēgātī mīttuntur*.

a. Verbs therefore which admit no accusative can be used in the passive only impersonally. (Cf. 387, and 194.)

b. Occasionally the subject of a dependent clause is anticipated in the main clause as the object of its verb, though this is much less common than in Greek. Thus : —

Meam uxōrem . . . nēscīs, qualis sit, you don't know what sort of a person my wife is (Plaut., *Asin.*, 59).

NOTE. The anticipated subject is sometimes in other constructions than that of object-accusative ; as : —

Quīdam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint levēs, it is often shown in small matters of money what weak characters some people have (Cic., *Am.*, 17, 63).

TWO ACCUSATIVES.

394. Certain classes of verbs take two accusatives. Thus : —

(1.) Many verbs which in the passive voice take a predicate nominative (cf. 328, 3), especially verbs meaning to MAKE, CALL, CHOOSE, RENDER, ESTEEM, RECKON. Thus : —

Mē cōsulē m fēcistis, you have made me consul (Cic.) ;

TWO ACCUSATIVES.

iram bene Ennius initium dīxit īnsāniae, Ennius has well called anger the beginning of madness (Cic.); *Sulpicium ac-
cūsātōrem suum numerābat nōn competitōrem*, he reck-
oned Sulpicius his accuser, not his rival (Cic., *Mūr.*, 24, 49).

a. One accusative is the *direct object*, the other a *predicate accusative*.

b. Instead of the *predicate accusative* the same "kindred constructions" sometimes occur as for a predicate nominative (see 331 above). Cf. also the following: —

*Fortūna mē, quī liber fueram, servom fēcīt, ē summō īn-
fimum*, fortune has made me who was free a slave, [changing me] from the highest to the lowest (Plaut.).

(2.) Verbs of ASKING, DEMANDING, TEACHING, and *cēlāre*, to hide, take an accusative of the person with another accusative of the thing. Thus: —

Hōc tē vehemēter rogō, this I ask you urgently (Cic.); *pōsce deōs veniam*,* ask indulgence of the gods (Verg.); *cum legent quis mūsicam docuerit Epaminōndam*, when they read who taught Epaminondas music (Nep.); *Antigonus iter omnēs cēlat*, Antigonus hides his journey from all (Nep.).

a. The following verbs of asking (and occasionally others) take an ablative with *ab*, *dē*, or *ex*, instead of the accusative of the person: *exigere*, *petere*, *pōstulāre*, (*ab*); *quaerere*, (*ex* or *de*); *scītārī*, *scīscītārī*. Thus: —

Pācem ab Rōmānīs petere, to ask peace of the Romans (Caes.).

b. Instead of the accusative of the thing, an ablative with *dē*, or with verbs of teaching an ablative of means (see 407, *b*), is sometimes used. Thus: —

Sic egō tē eīsdem dē rēbus interrogem, I would thus ques-
tion you on the same points (Cic.); *dē itinere hostium senā-
tum ēdocet*, he informs the senate of the enemy's march (Sall.); *Bassus noster mē dē hōc librō cēlāvit*, my friend Bassus

* The difference in sense between the two accusatives here and in ex-
pressions like *filiam tuam mihi uxōrem pōscō*, I ask your daughter as
wife, should be observed.

kept me in ignorance about this book (Cic.) ; *aliquem fidibus docēre*, to teach some one [to play on] the lyre (Cic.).

c. In the passive the accusative of the person becomes subject and the accusative of the thing remains ; as : —

Rogātus est sententiam, he was asked his opinion.

(3.) Verbs compounded with *trāns*, *ad*, or *circum* sometimes take two accusatives, one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition. Thus : —

Omnem equitātum pontem trānsdūcit, he led all his cavalry across the bridge (Caes.) ; *Petrēius iūs iūrandum adigit Afrānium*, Petreius bound Afranius by an oath (Caes.) ; *Rōscillum Pompēius omnia sua praesidia circumdūxit*, Pompey took Roscillus all around his garrisons (Caes.).

ACCUSATIVE WITH MIDDLE VOICE. *Subacc.*

395. A few verbs, seemingly deponent or passive but really remnants of a middle voice (see 193, a), take an accusative of direct object. Thus : —

Priamus inūtile ferrum cingitur, Priam girds on his un-availing sword (Verg.) ; *viridī membra sub arbutō strātus*, stretching his limbs under a green arbutus tree (Hor., *Odes*, i., 1).

a. This construction is especially common with certain perfect participles, as in the second example.

COGNATE ACCUSATIVE.

396. Some verbs not otherwise transitive take, as in English, an accusative with a meaning kindred to their own (Cognate Accusative). Thus : —

Vitam iucundam vivere, to live a merry life (Plaut.) ; *iūrāvī vērissimum iūs iūrandum*, I have sworn an inviolable oath (Cic.).

a. The cognate accusative usually has an adjective agreeing with it, as in the examples.

b. The degree in which the meanings of the verb and the accusative are kindred varies a good deal. In the poets the con-

struction became pretty widely expanded. Cf. the following examples : —

Coīre societātem, to form an alliance (Cic., *Rōsc. Am.*, 7, 20) ; *vincere iūdicium*,* to win a suit ; *saltāre Cyclōpa*, to dance the Cyclops (Hor., *Sat.*, i., 5, 63) ; *bacchānālia vivere*, to live a riotous life (Iuv., ii., 3).

ADVERBIAL ACCUSATIVE.

397. The adverbial use of the accusative to denote in what *respect* or to what *degree* an action is exerted, is really a variety of cognate accusative. Thus : —

Nihil labōrō, I have no difficulty ; *illud valdē tibi adsentior*, on that point I agree with you emphatically (Cic.) ; *Suēbī māximam partem lacte atque pecore vivunt*, the Suebi live for the most part on milk and meat.

ACCUSATIVE OF SPECIFICATION.

398. The accusative is sometimes used to *specify the part* to which the meaning of a verb or an adjective applies. Thus : —

Equus tremit artūs, the horse trembles in his limbs (Verg.) ; *clārī genus*, illustrious in birth (Tac.) ; *animus incēnsus*, fired in his soul (Līv.).

a. This construction is also called the SYNECDOCHICAL accusative. It is rare except in the poets, and is chiefly confined to the parts of the body. The use treated under 395 is often wrongly regarded as accusative of specification.

b. Here belongs perhaps the idiomatic use of the accusative in such expressions as : —

Scīs mē aliquid id genus solitum scribere, you know I am in the habit of writing something of the sort ; *id aetātis*, of or at that age ; *id temporis*, at that time.

ACCUSATIVE WITH VERBAL NOUNS, ETC.

399. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in

* This is a direct imitation of the Greek.

-bundus take an accusative, like the transitive verbs from which they are derived. Thus:—

Quid tibi hūc receptiō ad tē est meum virum, wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? (Plaut.); *Hannō vitābundus castra hostium cōsulēsque*, Hanno shunning the consuls and the camp of the enemy (Līv.).

a. This use is chiefly confined to colloquial and late Latin.

ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

400. In exclamations the noun or pronoun which marks the object of the feeling is put in the accusative, with or without an interjection. Thus:—

Hominem gravem et cīvem ēgregium! a solid man and admirable citizen (Cic.); *miseram mē* (Ter.); *prō deūm hominumque fidem*, by the honor of gods and men (Cic.); *ēn quattuor ārās*, lo four altars! (Verg.).

SUBJECT ACCUSATIVE.

401. The subject of an infinitive is put in the accusative. Thus:—

Molestē Pompēium id ferre cōstābat, it was believed that Pompey took that to heart (Cic.); *campōs iubet esse patentēs*, orders that the fields be open (Verg.).

For the subject of the Historical Infinitive see 530, a.

For the accusative with *propior* and *proximus*, see 390, 4.

For the accusative with prepositions, see 429, 431.

For the accusative in constructions of Place and Time, see 423, 425 ff.

VOCATIVE (*Vocātīvus*).

402. The VOCATIVE is used only to address a person or thing. Thus:—

Vincere scīs, Hannibal, victōria utī nēscīs, you know how to conquer, Hannibal, but you know not how to make use of victory; *Quintilī Vāre, legiōnēs redde*, Quintilius Varus, give back [my] legions; *ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtū-*

tis Homērum praeconem invēneris! O happy youth, who hast found a herald of thy valor in Homer! (Cic., *Arch.*, 10, 24).

a. The interjection *ō!* is used in prose only for deeply emotional address, as in the last example.

b. Other interjections are sometimes used, especially *prō!* in calling upon the gods. Thus:—

Prō sancte Iūppiter! O holy Jupiter!

c. A predicate word is sometimes in the Augustan poets made to agree with a vocative instead of the nominative. Thus:—

Quibus, Hector, ab ōrīs, expectāte venīs, from what shores, Hector, dost thou, long looked for, come? (Verg., *Ae.*, ii., 282).

NOTE. Properly speaking, the vocative is hardly a case at all. The similarity of its function with that of the nominative, both serving to *name* an object, accounts for the identity of form which, except in the singular of masculine and feminine *o-* stems with nominatives in *-us*, is everywhere shown by the two cases. (See 90, 3.)

ABLATIVE (*Ablātīvus*).

403. The ABLATIVE may be called the *adverbial* case, that is, it expresses various modifications of the predicate which in English are expressed by adverbs or by prepositional phrases.* It is therefore used chiefly with verbs and adjectives.

NOTE. To a still greater degree than with the other oblique cases is it difficult to trace any single principle in the various uses of the ablative. It has been a common theory that the original use was to denote *separation*, but the better opinion is that such is not the case. In the following arrangement each of the first two groups contains uses which seem pretty nearly allied to each other, though it will be observed that the last member of the first group (ablative of plenty) might just as well be reckoned in the second group. The special uses comprising group 3 can all be traced to individual uses under groups 1 and 2. The last group contains those uses in which it is most difficult to trace any bond of connection.

* The ablative had absorbed into itself the uses of the old instrumental and most of those of the locative. We have seen (90, note) that some of its forms are derived from these cases. The other uses of the locative passed over to the genitive or the dative.

USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

1. Ablative of Cause.

Source.

Agent.

Means or Instrument.

Way by which.

Price.

Plenty.

Manner or Accompaniment.

Characteristic or Quality.

2. Ablative of Specification.

Separation.

Want.

Degree of Difference.

With Comparatives.

3. Ablative in certain special expressions

{	<i>Opus</i> and <i>Ūsus</i> .
	<i>Dignus</i> , etc.
	<i>Ūtor</i> , <i>Fruor</i> , etc.
	<i>Nitor</i> , etc.
	<i>Adsuēscō</i> , etc.

4. Ablative Absolute.

of Time.

" Place.

with Prepositions.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE (*Ablātīvus causae*).

404. The ablative indicates the CAUSE of a thing in the widest sense. It thus indicates —

(1.) An external cause ; as : —

Hostēs frūmentī inopiā conloquium petivērunt, the enemy asked for a conference, on account of their want of grain.

(2.) An internal cause ; as : —

Nōlī putāre pigritiā mē id facere, do not think that I do so from laziness.

(3.) That *in consequence of which* or *in accordance with which* something takes place ; as : —

Diversis duobus vitiis, avāritiā et lūxuriā, civitās Rōmāna labōrābat, the Roman state was suffering from two opposite defects, greed and extravagance ; *amicī amicōrum dolōre*

maerent, friends are saddened by each other's pain; *īnstitūtō suō Caesar cōpiās suās ēdūxit*, Caesar led out his forces in accordance with his custom; *tanta cāritās patriae est, ut eam nōn sēnsū nostrō sed salūte ipsius mētiāmur*, so great is our love of country that we measure it not by our feeling, but by her own welfare (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 37); *militēs fessī labōre, dux anxius cūrīs*, the soldiers worn out with hardship; the general troubled with his cares.

a. Cause is also sometimes expressed by prepositions; as; —

Lēgibus propter metum pāret, he obeys the laws because of fear; *nē ob eam rem ipsōs dēspiceret*, [they begged] him not to despise them on that account.

b. The ablatives *causā* and *grātiā* (sometimes also *ergō*) are used with a genitive or a possessive pronoun to denote “for the sake of;” as: —

Et meā et reī pūblicae causā, for my sake and that of the state.

c. Words of emotion, etc., also sometimes take the ablative with *dē*, *ex*, *ā*, *īn*; as: —

Laetārī victōriā (or *īn victōriā*), to be glad at one's victory; *glōriārī dē* (or *īn*) *suīs dīvitiīs*, to boast of one's wealth; *labōrāre ex aere aliēnō*, *ab rē frūmentāriā*, to suffer under debt, from want of provisions.

ABLATIVE OF SOURCE.

405. The ablative is used, chiefly with perfect participles, to denote BIRTH OR ORIGIN. Thus: —

Tantalō prōgnātus, descended from Tantalus; *eōdem patre nātus*, born of the same father.

a. With the name of the mother and with pronouns the preposition *ex* is generally used, except in the poets; with distant ancestors the preposition *ab*. Thus: —

Ex rēgis filiā nātus, born of the king's daughter; *bēstiae quoque ex sē nātōs amant*, even the brutes love their offspring; *Belgae ortī sunt ab Germānīs*, the Belgians are descended from the Germans.

b. Locō, genere, familiā, generally take no preposition ; as : —
Summō locō nātus, born in the highest station.

For the construction with places, see 425, 426.

c. With cōnstāre and like words the ablative is used alone to denote MATERIAL. Thus : —

Animō cōnstāmus et corpore, we consist of mind and body (cf. Cic., *Fin.*, iv., 8, 19).

NOTE. Otherwise a preposition is used, except sometimes in verse.

ABLATIVE OF AGENT (*Ablātīvus agentis*).

406. The ablative of persons or personified things is used with the preposition *ā, ab*, to denote the AGENT. Thus : —

Ā Clōdiō dīligor, I am loved by Clodius ; *laudātur ab hīs culpātur ab illīs*, by the one set he is praised, by the other blamed (Hor.).

So, *perīre ab hoste*, to be slain by the enemy.

For Dative of Agent, see 383.

ABLATIVE OF MEANS (*Ablātīvus instrūmentī*).

407. The ablative of things is used without a preposition to denote the MEANS or INSTRUMENT of an action. Thus : —

Cornibus taurī, aprī dentibus, morsū leōnēs, aliae bēstiae fugā sē, aliae occultātiōne tūtantur, bulls protect themselves by their horns, boars by their tusks, lions by biting, some beasts by running away, others by hiding ; *Britannī interiōrēs lacte et carne vivēbant pellibusque erant vestītī*, the Britons of the interior used to live on milk and meat, and had skins for clothing.

a. A person regarded as a means is denoted by *per* with the accusative ; as : —

Multi per Caesarem aut honōrēs aut dīvitiās cēpērunt, many received office or wealth at Caesar's hands.

b. Various verbs which in English are used transitively are in Latin construed with an ablative of means. Thus especially

words meaning "to play" (either games or music), and sometimes verbs of teaching (see also 394, 2, *b*). Thus : —

Lūdere pilā, to play tennis ; * *canere tībīs*, to play the flute ; *artibus instruere*, to teach the arts ; *litteris imbuere*, to instil learning.

c. The ablative of means may be used to denote the road or path taken (sometimes called *ablative of the way by which*). Thus : —

Omnibus viīs nōtīs semitīsque essedāriōs ex silvīs ēmittēbat, he was sending out warriors in chariots from the woods by all the known roads and paths (Caes., *B. G.*, v., 19).

ABLATIVE OF PRICE (*Ablātīvus pretiī*).

408. The PRICE † or VALUE of a thing is expressed by the ablative, chiefly when it is a definite quantity. Thus : —

Cum tē trecentīs talentīs rēgī Cottō vēndidissēs, when you had sold yourself to king Cottus for three hundred talents (Cic.) ; *cōstitit quadringentīs mīlibus*, it cost four hundred thousand [sesterces] (Varr.) ; *levī mōmentō aestimāre*, to esteem it of little consequence (Caes.).

For the genitive of indefinite price, see 371, 372.

a. *Māgnō*, *permāgnō*, *parvō*, *minimō*, *plūrimō*, *nihilō*, though denoting indefinite value, are used as ablatives of price.

b. *Mūtāre* and its compounds take either the accusative of the thing given with the ablative of the thing received in exchange, or vice versa, but the context always prevents ambiguity. Thus : —

Chāoniam glandem pīnguī mūtāvit aristā, changed the Chaonian acorn for rich grain (Verg.) ; *cūr valle permūtem Sabīnā divitiās operōsiōrēs*, why should I exchange my Sabine vale for more burdensome riches ? (Hor., *Odes*, iii., 1, 47).

Sometimes *cum* is used with the ablative ; as : —

Mortem cum vitā commūtāre, to exchange life for death (Sulp., *ad Cic.*).

* We can also say, of course, in English, "to play *at* tennis," "to play *on* the flute," etc.

† That is, the *means* by which something is bought or sold.

ABLATIVE OF PLENTY (*Ablātīvus cōpiae*).

409. The ablative (of means) is used with verbs and adjectives which denote FULLNESS or ABUNDANCE. Thus:—

[*Villa*] abundat porcō, haedō, āgnō, gallinā, lacte, cāsēō, melle, the farmhouse is plentifully provided with ham, venison, lamb, poultry, milk, cheese, and honey (Cic., *Sen.*, 16, 56); *domus plēna servīs*, a house full of slaves (Iuv.).

a. Sometimes, by a Greek idiom, such words take a genitive in the poets; *compleō*, *impleō*, and *plēnus*, also in prose; as:—

Ollam dēnāriōrum implēre, to fill a jar with pennies (Cic.). (Cf. 359 and 360.)

ABLATIVE OF MANNER (*Ablātīvus modī*).

410. (1.) The ablative is used with the preposition *cum* to denote MANNER or ACCOMPANIMENT. Thus:—

Cum voluptāte aliquem audīre, to listen to one with pleasure; *Verrēs Lampsacum vēnit cum māgnā calamitāte civitātis*, Verres came to Lampsacus with great disaster to the city (Cic.).

(2.) The preposition is often omitted when there is an adjective agreeing with the ablative, and with a few particular words, — *modō*, *ratione*, *mōre*, *rītū*, *silentiō*, *iūre*, *iniuriā*, etc. Thus:—

Nūdīs pedibus incēdere, to go barefoot; *summā aequitāte rēs constituit*, he arranged affairs with the greatest fairness; *latrōnum rītū vīvere*, to live after the fashion of brigands; *silentiō praeterire aliquid*, to pass by something in silence.

ABLATIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC (*Ablātīvus quālitātis*).

411. The ablative is used, with an adjective agreeing with it or a genitive depending on it, to denote a CHARACTERISTIC or QUALITY. Thus:—

Agēsilaus statūrā fuit humilī et corpore exiguō, Agesi-

laus was of short stature and small frame ; *homō m̄ximā barbā*, a man with very long beard ; *flūmen difficilī trānsitū rīpisque praeruptis*, a river of difficult passage and steep banks ; *clāvus ferreus digitī pollicis crassitudīne*, an iron nail of the thickness of the thumb.

a. Physical characteristics are always expressed thus by the ablative ; other qualities may also be expressed by a genitive of characteristic. (See 356, and 358, 6.)

ABLATIVE OF SPECIFICATION (*Ablātīvus līmitātiōnis*).

412. The ablative is used with nouns, adjectives, and verbs to denote IN WHAT RESPECT a thing is true. Thus : —

Pietāte fīlius, cōnsiliis parēs, in affection a son, in counsel a parent.

Iūre perītus, skilled in law ; *pedibus aeger*, lame in his feet.

Contremiscō tōtā mente et omnibus artubus, I am agitated in my whole mind and all my limbs (Cic.) ; *meā quidem sententiā* * *pācī semper est cōsulendum*, in my opinion at least the interests of peace are always to be looked out for.

a. Here belongs the ablative in the expressions *quid hōc homine faciās*, what can you do with such a man ? *quid illō fiet* ? what will be done with him ? *quid tē futurum est* ? what is going to become of you ? etc.

For the rare dative with *faciō* in this sense, see 381, *a.*

NOTE. The tendency to confuse the ablative of *characteristic* and the ablative of *specification* can be avoided by remembering that with the first the adjective agrees with the *ablative*, and with the second it agrees with the *noun qualified*. Thus : —

Homō aegrīs pedibus (Characteristic).

Homō aeger pedibus (Specification).

ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION (*Ablātīvus sēparātiōnis*).

413. SEPARATION or PRIVATION is denoted, with various verbs, by the ablative. With persons a preposition

* This case is sometimes regarded as belonging under 404, 3.

(*ab*, *dē*, *ex*) is always used ; with things the preposition is sometimes used, sometimes omitted. Thus : —

Quāntum Varium pellere possēssiōnibus cōnātus est, he tried to drive Quintus Varius from his possessions (Cic.) ; *tūne eam philosophiam sequere, quae spoliāt nōs iūdicīō, privat adprobātiōne, orbat sēnsibus* ? do you follow a philosophy which robs us of the ability to pass judgment, deprives us of the power to approve, and takes away the use of the senses ? (Cic.) ; *hōc mē liberā metū*, free me from this fear (Ter.) ; *tū, Iūpiter, hunc ā tuīs ārīs arcēbis*, thou, Jupiter, wilt keep this [scoundrel] from thy altars (Cic.) ; *arcem ab incendiō liberāvit*, he freed the citadel from fire (Cic.) ; *sē ab Etruscīs sēcernere*, to separate one's self from the Etruscans (Līv.).

For the dative with words of taking away from, see 380.

ABLATIVE OF WANT (*Ablātīvus inopiae*).

414. So words and adjectives denoting NEED, etc., take the ablative. Thus : —

Virum quī pecūniā egeat, a man who needs money (Cic.) ; *carēre culpā*, to be free from fault (Cic.) ; *mea adulēscētia indiget illōrum bonā existimātiōne*, my youthfulness needs their good opinion (Cic.) ; *inops verbis*, poor in words (Cic.) ; *orba frātribus*, bereft of her brothers (Ovid).

a. *Egeō* and *indigeō* often take the genitive ; as : —

Egeō cōsiliī, I need advice ; *nōn tam artis indigent quam labōris*, they do not lack skill so much as they lack industry (Cic.)

b. Other words of the kind are, by a Greek idiom, often used with the genitive in the poets ; as : —

Abstinetō irārum, thou shalt refrain from wrath (Hor.) ; *cum famulīs operum solūtīs*, with the slaves released from their tasks (Hor., *Odes*, iii., 17).

ABLATIVE OF DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE (*Ablātīvus mēnsūrae*).

415. DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE is expressed by the ablative. Thus : —

Hibernia dīmidiō minor, quam Britannia, Ireland is smaller by half than Britain; *quam molestum est ūnō digitō plūs habēre*, how irksome it would be to have one finger more [*i. e.*, than we have] (Cic.); *multō ante lūcis adventum*, long before the coming of the day (Sall.); *quō difficilīus, hōc praeclārius*, the more difficult, the more glorious.

a. An accusative of specification is sometimes used instead of the ablative of measure; as: —

Aliquantum est ad rem avidior, he is somewhat more eager for the thing (Ter.).

NOTE. The ablatives of separation, of want, and of degree of difference, are varieties of the ablative of specification.

ABLATIVE WITH COMPARATIVES.

416. The COMPARATIVE degree, when *quam* is omitted, is followed by the ablative. Thus: —

Nihil est virtūte fōrmōsius, nothing is more beautiful than virtue (Cic.); *quis C. Laeliō cōmior*, who more courteous than Gaius Laelius? (Cic.)

a. *Quam* has to be used if the second term of the comparison is not nominative (or vocative) or accusative; as: —

Adventus hostium fuit agrīs quam urbī terribilior, the arrival of the enemy was more dreadful for the country than for the city (Līv.).

Quam is also frequently used when the second term of the comparison is in one of the cases named. Thus: —

Melior tūtiorque est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria, certain peace is better and safer than victory hoped for (Līv.).

b. The words *opīniōne, spē, expectātiōne, fidē, dictō, solitō, aequō, crēdibilī, necessariō, vērō, iūsto*, are used after comparatives to supply the place of a clause. Thus: —

Opīniōne celerius ventūrus esse dīcitur, he is said to be likely to come sooner than one expects (Caes.); *iniūriās gravius aequō habēre*, to take injuries more to heart than is right and fair (Sall.).

c. *Plūs, minus, amplius*, and *longius*, with or without *quam*, are used with words of number or measure without affecting their construction. Thus : —

Nōn plūs quam quattuor mīlia effūgērunt, not more than four thousand escaped (Līv.); *minus duo mīlia hominum ex tantō exercitū effūgērunt*, out of so large an army, less than two thousand men escaped (Līv.); *mīlitēs Rōmānī saepe plūs dīmidiātī mēnsis cibāria ferēbant*, the Roman soldiers used often to carry with them provisions for more than half a month (Cic.).

d. *Alius* is in verse sometimes construed with the ablative like a comparative; as : —

Nēve putēs alium sapiente bonōque beātum, nor think any one other than a wise and good man happy (Hor.).

e. *Inferior* usually takes *quam*, but is occasionally followed by a dative; as : —

Vir nullā arte cuiquam inferior, a man inferior to none in any kind of craft (Sall.).

NOTE. The foregoing uses of the ablative will sometimes be found to shade into each other so subtly that it is difficult or impossible to assign a given instance to a given class. This is due to the necessity of making a classification for foreigners of things which a native has only to feel.

ABLATIVE IN CERTAIN SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS.

NOTE. The ablative is used with the following sets of words “idiomatically,” — that is, the reason for the ablative is not immediately evident, and English usage leads one to expect a different case.

Opus and ūsus.

417. *Opus* and *ūsus*, meaning NEED,* take the ablative. Thus : —

Auctōritāte tuā nobīs opus est, we need your influence (Cic.); *nunc animīs opus, nunc pectore firmō*, now there is need of courage and a steadfast heart (Verg.); *nāvēs, quibus cōsulī ūsus nōn esset*, ships for which the consul had no occasion (Līv.); *mātūrātō opus est*, there is need of haste (Līv.).

* The ablative here is an ablative of specification, showing the respect in which the need is felt.

a. The person or thing who has the need is expressed by the dative, as in the above examples. The thing needed, besides being expressed by the ablative, is sometimes expressed by the nominative as subject (especially if a neuter pronoun), or rarely by the genitive ; as : —

Quod nōn opus est, asse cūrū est, what is not necessary is dear at a cent (Cic., *dē Sen.*) ; *argentī opus fuit*, there was need of silver (Liv.).

An infinitive clause may also be used as subject ; as : —

Quid opus est tam valdē adfirmāre, what need of such strong assertion ?

Dignus, Indignus, Contentus, Frētus.

418. *Dignus, indignus, contentus*, and *frētus* * take the ablative. Thus : —

Dignus laude, worthy of praise ; *vōx populī māiestātē indigna*, a speech unworthy the dignity of the people (Caes.) ; *bēstiae eō contentae nōn quaerunt amplius*, the brutes, content with that, seek nothing further (Cic.) ; *plērīque ingeniō frētī*, most of them trusting to their ingenuity (Cic.).

a. *Dignus* and *indignus* sometimes take a genitive, and *frētus* in Livy takes a dative ; as : —

Sūscipe cōgitationem dīgnissimam tuae virtūtis, adopt a plan which is most worthy your own merits ; *fortūnae frētus*, trusting to fortune.

For *dignus, indignus*, with the subjunctive, see 482, 2.

Ūtor, Fruor, Fungor, Potior, Vescor.

419. *Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior*, and *vescor*, † and some of their compounds, take the ablative. Thus : —

Multi deōrum beneficiō perversē ūtuntur, many people use the blessings of the gods wrongly (Cic., *N. D.*, iii., 28, 70) ; *frui voluptātē*, to enjoy pleasure (Cic.) ; *fungitur officiō*, he

* The ablative with *dignus* and *indignus* is also an ablative of specification ; with *contentus* and *frētus* rather an ablative of cause.

† The ablative here is really an ablative of means. Thus, *frui voluptātē* = to get enjoyment by means of pleasure.

performs the duty (Cic.); *oppidō potītī sunt*, they got possession of the town (Līv.); *vescitur aurā*, feeds on air (Verg.); *lēgibus abūtī*, to misuse the laws (Cic.); *dēfūctī imperiō rēgis*, having fulfilled the king's command (Līv., i., 4, 5).

a. In early Latin these verbs occur with the accusative. Thus: —

Ūtēris, ut volēs, operam meam, you will use my services as you please (Pl., *Poen.*, v., 2, 128); *mūnus fungātur suum*, let him perform his duty (Pl., *Trin.*, 354).

NOTE. In classical Latin these verbs are used in the gerundive, not the gerund, construction (see 550). Therefore, *ad urbem potiundam*, not *ad urbe potiundum*, for getting possession of the city; *voluptātis fruendae causā*, not *voluptāte fruendī causā*, for the sake of enjoying pleasure.

b. *Potior* also occurs with the genitive; as: —

Sī explorātum tibi sit posse tē illius rēgnī potiri, if you are satisfied that you can get possession of that kingdom (Cic., *Fam.*, i., 7, 5).

Nītor, Innītor, Fīdō, Cōnfīdō.

420. *Nītor*, *innītor*, *fīdō*, and *cōnfīdō*,* take the ablative. Thus: —

Baculō nīti, to lean on a staff; *nīti auctōritāte*, to depend on (some one's) influence; *hastā innīxus*, leaning on his spear; *fīdere cursū*, to trust to running; *nātūrā loci cōnfidēbant*, they had confidence in their natural position.

a. *Fīdō* and *cōnfīdō* also sometimes take a dative (see 376), as *diffīdō* always does.

Adsuēscō, Adsuēfaciō, Cōnsuēscō, Insuēscō.

421. *Adsuēscō*, *adsuēfaciō*, *cōnsuēscō*, *insuēscō*,* sometimes take the ablative.† Thus: —

Avēs sanguine et praedā adsuētae, birds accustomed to the blood of prey (Hor.); *nullō officiō aut disciplīna adsuēfactus*, accustomed to no [restraint of] duty or training (Caes.);

* The ablative with the two sets of verbs treated in 420 and 421 is an ablative of means. Thus, *baculō nīti* = to support one's self by means of a staff.

† In Livy and the later writers these verbs are also used with a dative.

nē gravissimō dolōre timōre cōnsuēscerem, in order not to become accustomed to most bitter pain through fear (Plin.).

a. Acquiēscō, repose in, rejoice in, takes most commonly in with an ablative, but (especially in the historians and later writers) also a simple ablative or dative ; as —

Quī iam aetāte prōvectī, in nostrīs librīs acquiēscunt, those who are now advanced in years find rest in my books (Cic.) ; *quī māximē P. Clōdī morte acquiērunt*, who took the greatest satisfaction in the death of Publius Clodius (Cic.) ; *cui velut ōrāculō acquiēscēbat*, to whom he yielded assent as to an oracle (Suēt., *Vitel.*, 14).

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE (*Ablātīvus absolūtus*).

422. A noun and a participle are put in the ablative, not grammatically dependent upon the rest of the sentence, to denote the TIME, REASON, or CIRCUMSTANCES of an action. Thus : —

Pythagorās Tarquiniō rēgnante in Italiā vēnit, Pythagoras came to Italy in the reign of Tarquin (Cic.) ; *hāc ōrātiōne habitā, concilium dīmīsīt*, when this speech had been delivered, he dismissed the assembly (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 33) ; *virtūtē exceptā, nihil amīcitiā praestābilius putētis*, regard nothing, with the exception of virtue, as of more value than friendship (Cic.).

*a. Two nouns or a noun with an adjective may also be put in the ablative absolute, with the participial notion of “being” * implied. Thus : —*

Rōmam vēnit Mariō cōsule, he came to Rome while Marius was consul (Cic.) ; *quid adulēscēte duce efficere possent*, what they could do with a youth as leader (Caes.) ; *Hannibale vivō*, while Hannibal was living (Nep.).

b. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun ; as : —

Nōndum compertō quam in regiōnem vēnisset rēx, not yet having found out into what region the king had come (Liv.).

* * It will be remembered that *esse* has no present participle.

c. A pronoun which would be in the ablative absolute is sometimes omitted.* Thus : —

Additur dolus, missis quī māgnam vim lignōrum ardentem in flūmen cōnicerent, a crafty scheme was also employed of sending people to throw a lot of burning wood into the stream (Līv., i., 37); *causam dīgressūs requīrentibus*, when they sought the cause of the departure (Tac., *Hist.*, i., 27).

d. The ablative absolute is chiefly used with the present participle or the perfect passive participle, and when the word in the ablative does not otherwise occur in the sentence, but it also occasionally occurs in the following cases : —

(1.) Future participle : —

Inruptūris tam infestis nātiōnibus, when such hostile nations were on the point of bursting in (Līv.).

(2.) Perfect participle of a deponent verb (rare with an object, but not uncommon otherwise) : —

Sullā omnia pollicitō, Sulla having promised everything (Sall., *Iug.*, 103, 7); *secūtis omnibus*, all following (Hor., *S.*, ii., 8, 40); *virtūtibus ad cruciātum profectis*, the virtues going to the rack (Cic., *Tūsc.*, v., 28, 80).

(3.) The ablative denoting the same person as the subject or object of the sentence : —

Ōstendit sē mihī infidēlem nunquam, sē vivā, fore, she shows me that she will never be unfaithful to me, as long as she lives (Plaut., *Truc.*, ii., 4, 85); *Caesar, obsidibus imperātis, hōs Haeduīs cūstōdiendōs trādit*, Caesar, having ordered hostages, gives them over to the Haeduans to guard (Caes., *B. G.*, vi., 4); *nēmō erit quī crēdat tē invītō prōvinciam tibi esse dēcrētā*, there will be no one who will believe that the province was assigned you against your own will (Cic., *Phil.*, xi., 10, 23).

* Expressions like *tranquillō*, with a calm sea, *serēnō*, under a clear sky, etc., may be considered as ablatives absolute with the noun omitted; or, perhaps better, as ablatives of time, like *lūdis, comitiis*, at the games, elections, etc. (See 424, b.)

(4.) With a predicate word added : —

Dolābellā hesternō diē hoste dēcrētō, Dolabella having been yesterday decreed an enemy (Cic., *Phil.*, xi., 7, 16).

For the Constructions of Place and Time, see 423 ff.

For the Cases with Prepositions, see 428 ff.

CONSTRUCTIONS OF PLACE AND TIME.

DURATION OF TIME AND EXTENT OF SPACE.

423. DURATION OF TIME and EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the accusative. Thus : —

Appius caecus multōs annōs fuit, Appius was blind for many years (Cic.); *diēs tōtōs dē virtūte disserunt*, they discuss (about) virtue whole days together (Cic.); *cum abessem ab Amānō iter ūnūs diēi*, when I was one day's journey from Mount Amanus (Cic.).

(a.) MEASURE may also be expressed by a genitive of characteristic (cf. 356). Thus : —

Duās fōssās quīndecim pedēs lātās perdūxit, he drew out two ditches fifteen feet wide (Caes.); but also, *vallō pedum duodecim*, with a rampart of twelve feet in height (Caes., *B. G.*, ii., 5).

b. Distance may also be expressed by an ablative of measure (cf. 415). Thus : —

Tria passuum milia ab ipsā urbe castra posuit, he pitched his camp three miles from the city itself (Liv.); but also, *milibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castris cōsēdit*, he encamped six miles from Caesar's camp (Caes.).

TIME AT WHICH.

424. TIME AT WHICH or WITHIN WHICH is expressed by the ablative. Thus : —

Hōc tempore, at this time; *tertiā vigiliā ēruptiōnem fēcērunt*, they made a sally in the third watch (Caes.); *ut hieme nāvīgēs*, for you to sail in winter (Cic.)



a. The ablative occasionally also denotes duration of time; as:—

Militēs quīnque hōrīs proelium sustinuērunt, the soldiers maintained the battle for five hours (Caes., *B. C.*, i., 47).

b. Many words are used as ablatives of time where the English idiom leads us to expect a different construction. Thus:—

Lūdīs, at the games; *comitiīs*, at the elections; *initiō* or *prīncipiō*, in the beginning; *adventū*, on the arrival; *discessū*, on the departure; *tumultū*, *bellō*, *pāce*, etc., (in time of) insurrection, war, peace, etc.

c. The day of the month is commonly expressed by the formula *ante diem* . . . *Kalendās*, *Nōnās*, or *Idūs*, with the name of the month as an adjective agreeing with *Kalendās*, *Nōnās*, or *Idūs*. Thus:—

Is diēs erat ante diem quīntum Kalendās Aprīlis, *L. Pīsōne A. Gabiniō cōsulibus*, that day was the fifth before the first of April (*i. e.*, Mar. 28th*), in the consulship of Lucius Piso and Aulus Gabinius (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 6).

d. The year is regularly denoted by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, and generally without a connective, as in the preceding example.

e. Instead of *ante diem*, etc., sometimes a simple ablative of time is used, the name of the month remaining in the accusative; as:—

Quīntō decimō diē Kalendās Sextīlis (*XV Kal. Sext.*), the fifteenth day before the first of August (*i. e.*, July 18th*).

f. The whole expression *ante diem* . . . *Kal.*, etc., may be treated as a noun and governed by a preposition. Thus:—

Caedem optimātium contulerat in ante diem quīntum Kalendās Novembrīs, he had assigned the massacre of the nobles to the 28th of October (cf. Cic., *Cat.*, i., 3, 7).

For further treatment of the Roman calendar, see 661.

* It must be remembered that the Romans, in reckoning from one day to another, included both days, while we exclude one of them. Thus the 28th of March was to the Romans the fifth day before the 1st of April, while to us it is the fourth day.

PLACE TO, AT, IN, FROM WHICH.

425. Relations of place (except with names of towns) are expressed by prepositions, with the accusative for PLACE TO WHICH, and the ablative for PLACE AT, IN, or FROM, WHICH. Thus : —

Tē in Epīrum vēnisse gaudeō, I am glad you have reached Epirus (Cic.); *inde ad montem altum pervēnērunt*, from there they came to a high mountain; *cruentum bellum in Āfricā gerēbātur*, a bloody war was going on in Africa; *in forō illum inveniēs*, you will find him at the market-place; *ex Asiā trānsībīs in Eurōpam*, from Asia you will go across to Europe; *ab flūmine statim discēdere iūssit*, he ordered them to go away from the river at once.

426. With names of towns (and small islands) —

(1.) No preposition is used; as : —

Rēgulus Karthāginem rediit, Regulus went back to Carthage (Cic.); *Pausaniam cum classe Cyprum mīsērunt*, they sent Pausanias to Cyprus with a fleet (Nep.); *nātus Tībure vel Gabiīs*, born at Tibur or Gabii (Hor.); *Brundisiō profecti sumus*, we started from Brundisium (Cic.); *Dēmarātus Tarquiniōs Corinthō fugit*, Demaratus fled from Corinth to Tarquinii.

(2.) The PLACE IN or AT WHICH has the *locative* form where that is different from the ablative.* Thus : —

Rōmae aliquot mēnsēs morābāmur, we tarried some months at Rome; *Dionysius tyrannus Syracūsīs expulsus Corinthī puerōs docēbat*, Dionysius the tyrant, when driven from Syracuse, kept a boys' school at Corinth (Cic.); *Karthāginī mortuus est*, he died at Carthage.

But : —

Athēnis Platō vivēbat, Plato lived at Athens; *Sardibus haec facta sunt*, this took place at Sardis; etc.

* That is, in the singular of the first and second declensions, and sometimes of the third. (See 88, a, 93, 97, 3, 112.)

a. Like names of towns are used *domus*, home, and *rūs*, country, with the locatives *bellī*, *mīlitiae*, in the field or at war, *humī*, on the ground, and the expressions *forīs*, out of doors, *terrā marīque*, on land and sea. A locative *domuī*, as well as *domī*, occurs.

b. A remnant of the *locative* case is seen in the use of *animī* with verbs and adjectives of emotion; as, *excruciārī animī*, to be tortured in soul; *aeger animī*, sick at heart; etc.

c. The ablatives *locō* and *parte*, and sometimes others of general meaning, are used without a preposition to denote the PLACE WHERE. So also the preposition is sometimes omitted, when the ablative is qualified by an adjective (especially *tōtus*). Thus:—

Hōc locō, in this place; *eā parte*, on that side; *urbe tōtā gemitus fit*, a groan arises in the whole town (Cic.); *tōtā Asiā vagātur*, he wanders in all Asia (Cic.); *mediā urbe*, in the midst of the city (Līv., i., 33).

d. With *librō*, *capite*, *versū*, etc., meaning the book, chapter, verse, etc., as a whole, no preposition is used; but if a particular place in them is meant, the preposition is necessary.

e. The preposition is sometimes omitted with names of countries (especially when connected with names of towns), but mostly in the ante-classical and post-classical writers. Cicero and Caesar use only *Aegyptum* thus. The poets omit the preposition often even with common nouns. Thus:—

Rōmae Numidiaequē facinora eius memorat, he mentions his doings at Rome and in Numidia (Sall., *Iug.*, 33, 4); *litterae Macedoniā adlatae*, a letter brought from Macedonia (Līv.); *Italiam fātō profugus Lavīniaque vēnit litora*, driven by fate into exile he came to Italy and the shores of Lavinium (Verg., *Ae.*, i., 2); *fīnibus omnēs prōsiluēre suīs*, they all leaped forth from their confines (Verg.).

f. The accusative is used in Latin whenever MOTION TO is implied, even where the English idiom leads us to expect the ablative. Thus:—

Coniūrātī in cūriam convēnērunt, the conspirators met in

the senate house; *lēgātōs Karthāginem in Āfricam mīsērunt*, they sent ambassadors to Carthage in Africa.

g. When the word for "town" is put in apposition with the name of the town, and has no adjective with it, the proper name generally stands after the common noun, and takes its case. Thus:—

Vercingetorix expellitur ex oppidō Gergoviā, Vercingetorix is being driven out of the town of Gergovia; *Cīmōn in oppidō Citiō est mortuus*, Cimon died in the town of Citium.

h. When the word for "town" has an attributive with it, the proper name stands first, and if in the *locative* retains its own case. A preposition meaning "at" or "in" is here often omitted with the word for "town;" occasionally also one meaning "from." Thus:—

Tūsculō, ex clārissimō mūnicipiō, from Tusculum, a famous town; *Jugurtha Thalam pervenit, in oppidum māgnū et opulentum*, Jugurtha arrives at Thala, a large and wealthy town; *Cicerō Arpinī parvō (in) oppidō Latī nātus est*, Cicero was born at Arpinum, a small town of Latium.

427. Prepositions are sometimes used with expressions of TIME for greater accuracy, and with names of towns to denote TO, IN, or FROM, THE NEIGHBORHOOD of the place. Thus:—

Quem per decem annōs aluimus, whom we have been rearing for ten years (Cic.); *dē tertiā vigiliā ad hostēs contendit*, he hastened against the enemy during the third watch (Caes.); *in diēbus proximīs decem*, within the next ten days (Sall.); *iter dīrigere ad Mutinam*, to turn one's journey towards Modena (Cic.); *ab Alexandriā profectus*, starting from Alexandria (Cic.); *ex domō*, from home.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

428. The cases used with prepositions are the accusative and the ablative.

429. The ACCUSATIVE is used with the following twenty-six prepositions : —

ad, to, towards.	ergā, towards.	pōne, behind.
adversus (adversum), against.	extrā, outside of.	post, after.
ante, before.	īnfrā, below.	praeter, along by.
apud, near.	inter, among.	prope, near.
circum (circā), around.	intrā, within.	propter, near, on account of.
circiter, about.	iūxtā, next.	secundum, after.
cis (citrā), this side of.	ob, against, on account of.	suprā, above.
contrā, beyond.	penes, in the power of.	trāns, across.
	per, through.	ultrā, beyond.

Thus :—

Ad templum nōn aequae Palladis ībant, they went to the temple of the unpropitious Minerva (Verg.) ; adversus hostēs, against the foe (Līv.) ; Germānī quī cis Rhēnum incolunt, the Germans who live this side of the Rhine (Caes.) ; cum tantum resideat intrā mūrōs malī, when so much evil remains within the city (Cic.) ; prīncipiō rērum imperium penes rēgēs erat, in the beginning the power (over things) was in the hands of kings (Jūst.) ; templum pōnam propter aquam, I will build a temple near the water (Verg.) ; inter agendum, in the midst of doing ; ante dōnandum, before giving (Verg.).

a. Cis is generally used with names of places, citrā with other words also ; as : —

Cis Taurum, this side Mt. Taurus ; citrā Veliam, this side Velia ; citrā satietātem, short of satiety.

b. Ergā is very rarely used in classical Latin except with names of persons.

430. The ABLATIVE is used with the following ten prepositions : —

ā or ab, from, by.	cum, with.	prō, before.
absque, without.	dē, from, about.	sine, without.
coram,* in presence of.	ē or ex, out of.	tenus, as far as.
	prae, before.	

* Not before Cicero.

Thus:—

Ab illō tempore, from that time; *cum exercitū*, with an army; *certīs dē causīs*, for particular reasons; *ex fugā*, from flight; *sine labōre*, without trouble.

431. *In*, *sub*, *subter*, *super*, take the accusative when MOTION is implied (even figuratively); the ablative for relations of REST:—

Via dūcit in urbem, the way leads into town (Verg.); *exercitus sub iugum mīssus est*, the army was sent under the yoke (Caes.); *cōsul subter mūrum hostium ad cohortēs advehitur*, the consul rides up to the cohorts close under the walls of the enemy (Liv., xxxiv., 20, 8); *super labentem culmina tecti*, gliding over the gable of the roof (Verg.).

Mediā in urbe, in the midst of the city (Ovid.); *bella sub Iliacīs moenibus gerere*, to wage war at the foot of the walls of Troy (Ovid.); *super tenerō prōsternit grāmine corpus*, he stretches his body on the tender sward (Verg.).

Noster in tē amor, my love towards you; *hostilem in modum*, after a hostile fashion; *sub eā condiciōne*, on this condition; *sub adventū Rōmānōrum*, just before the arrival of the Romans; *multa super Priamō rogītāns super Hectore multa*, asking many questions about Priam and of Hector many (Verg.).

a. *Subter* with the ablative is rare and chiefly poetical.

b. *Super* in the meaning “about,” as in the last example, takes the ablative. Otherwise it almost always takes the accusative.

c. Verbs of PLACING (except sometimes *impōnō*) take the ablative, not accusative, with *in*, notwithstanding the implied motion; as:—

Trēs legiōnēs in illā urbe posuit, he stationed three legions in that city.

d. *Tenus* regularly follows its noun. Various other prepositions occasionally do so, but chiefly in the poets. Prepositions of one syllable are the least common in this position. Thus:—

Capulō tenus, as far as the hilt (Verg., *Ae.*, x., 536); *vēsti-*

bulum ante, before the entrance court (Verg., *Ae.*, vi., 273); *tē propter*, on your account (Verg., *Ae.*, iv., 320).

e. *Cum* is always appended to the personal pronouns, and generally to the relative and interrogative forms, *quō*, *quā*, *quibus*, *quī*. Thus:—

Est mihi tēcum amicitia vetus, I have a long-standing friendship with you; *vōbiscum simul*, along with you; *frāter quōcum Antiochum vīcerat*, the brother with whom he had conquered Antiochus.

f. *Tenus* occasionally takes the genitive, thus retaining its original force as a noun; as:—

Corcȳrae tenus, as far as Coreyra.

g. Certain adverbs sometimes take the accusative or ablative like prepositions. So, with the accusative, *prīdiē*, *postrīdiē*,* *propius*, *proximē* (cf. 390, 4), *ūsque*; with the ablative, *palam*, *procul*, *simul*; with either case (or occasionally with a genitive or dative), *clam*. Thus: *proxumē Karthāginem*, close to Carthage (Sall., *Jug.*, 18, 11); *palam populō*, before the people (Liv., vi., 14, 5); *clam uxōrem*, unknown to his wife (Plaut., *Merc.*, 545); *clam patris*, unknown to his father (Plaut., *Merc.*, 43).

NOTE. All the prepositions denoted originally relations of PLACE, taking the accusative where motion TO or TOWARDS a place was implied, otherwise the ablative. This distinction is also easily traceable in most of the figurative uses of the prepositions as they grew out of the relations of place.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF NOUNS.

The following points in the use of Latin nouns deserve especial notice:—

432. Concrete nouns are used to denote the time of life at which a person does something, where in English an abstract noun or a clause is used. Thus:—

Adulēscēns Catō in Hispāniā militāverat, Cato had served in Spain when a young man (or in his youth).

So, *ā puerō*, etc., from boyhood, etc.

* These two words also take a genitive (see 355, 5, b).

433. So also in designations of office. Thus :—

Catilinæ coniūratiōnem Cicerō cōsul oppressit, Cicero, when consul, overthrew the conspiracy of Catiline.

a. In *cōsulātū suō* can, however, also be used.

434. Abstract nouns are often used in a collective sense ; as, *lēgatiō*, an embassy ; *nōbilitās*, the aristocracy ; *iuventūs*, the youth ; *levis armātūra*, the light armed troops.

435. The singular of nouns denoting persons is also used collectively instead of the plural, especially in military expressions ; as, *mīles*, the soldiery ; *hostis*, the enemy ; *Poenus*, the Carthaginian(s). (Cf. also 346, 1, *a.*)

436. The singular is thus used for the plural in names of animals (to denote food), and of plants, and sometimes other words. Thus :—

Villa abundat porcō, haedō, etc., the farmhouse has plenty of pork, goat's meat, etc.* ; *caput redimīre rosā*, to bind the head with roses ; *fabā vescī*, to feed on beans ; *bēstiae plūmā obductae*, animals covered with feathers.

437. The plural is used where in English the singular is preferred :—

(1.) To indicate a thing as belonging to SEVERAL PERSONS or to PEOPLE IN GENERAL. Thus :—

Hostēs terga vertunt, the enemy turn their back ; *animī hominum immortālēs sunt*, the soul of man is immortal.

(2.) In names of materials, etc., to denote KINDS or PIECES of the thing mentioned ; as, *vīna*, kinds of wine ; *carnēs*, pieces of flesh ; *ligna*, bits of wood.

(3.) In abstract nouns, to denote INSTANCES of the quality. Thus :—

Clārae mortēs prō patriā oppetitae beātae vidērī solent, an illustrious death met for one's country is regarded as a happiness ; *in odia hominum incurrere*, to run into men's dislike.

* The same example will be found more fully quoted on p. 230.

a. The plural is not infrequently used for the singular in poetry, as having a more elevated and impressive effect.

NOTE. Except in the uses mentioned, abstract nouns are much less common in Latin than in English, verb constructions, or nouns of general meaning, like *rēs*, with an adjective, being used instead. The pupil should be particularly warned against using the longer abstracts in *-tās*, *-tia*, *-tiō*, etc., freely as equivalents of the English words derived from them.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

The following points in the use of adjectives deserve especial notice : —

438. Adjectives are often used as nouns : —

(1.) Especially, adjectives denoting RELATIONSHIP, or CONNECTION WITH, are often more common as nouns than as real adjectives ; as : —

Cōgnātus (-*a*), a relative ; *adfīnis*, a connection ; *amīcus* (-*a*), a friend ; *aequālīs*, a contemporary ; *vīcīnus* (-*a*), a neighbor.

a. So the gentile adjectives ; as : —

Rōmānus, a Roman ; *Athēniēnsis*, an Athenian.

(2.) In the masculine plural, as in English, to denote CLASSES of people ; as : —

Bonī, the good ; *dīvitēs*, the rich ; *doctī*, the learned.

a. In the singular, to denote a class, the nominative is rare ; but the other cases are not uncommon, especially the genitive with *esse* ; as : —

Dēmentis hōc est, this is the part of a madman.

(3.) In the neuter, to denote THINGS ; as : —

Bonum, a good thing ; *malum*, an evil.

And especially perfect participles ; as : —

Factum, a deed ; *respōnsum*, an answer.

a. The participle thus made a noun may still be modified by an adverb ; as, *praeclārē factum* as well as *praeclārum factum*. In such cases, *bene*, *male*, and *rēctē* are always used rather than the corresponding adjectives.

439. Neuter adjectives are also used substantively : —

(1.) In the singular, in philosophical language, to express abstract ideas ; as : —

Rēctum, the right ; *turpe*, the base ; *summum bonum*, the highest good.

(2.) As partitive genitives ; as : —

Aliquid novī, something new.

(3.) In phrases with prepositions ; as : —

In *mediō relinquere*, to leave undecided ; in *medium prōferre*, to bring before people ; in *tūtō esse*, to be in safety ; *sine dubiō*, without doubt.

(4.) In the plural where in English often an abstract singular is used ; as : —

Iūsta dīcere, to say what is just ; *pēstifera ā salūtāribus discernere*, to distinguish the baneful from the salutary.

a. Only the nominative and accusative are common in this use. Confusion with the similar masculine forms would often arise in the other cases, and then *rēs* is used with the adjective (*bonūrum rērum* = *bonōrum*, n., etc.). But where there is no danger of ambiguity such neuters occur ; as : —

Prīmum omnium, first of all things.

440. Adjectives are often used in Latin where English prefers a possessive case or a noun with a preposition, especially adjectives formed from names of nations or individuals. Thus : —

Militēs Pompēiānī, the soldiers of Pompey ; *orātiō Cicerōniāna*, an oration of Cicero's ; *bellum Iugurthīnum*, the war against Jugurtha ; *pūgna Cannēnsis*, the battle of Cannae ; *Dion Syracūsānus*, Dion of Syracuse.

441. Attributive adjectives are very rarely used in direct agreement with proper names or with words like *cōsul*, which characterize an individual. The adjective is commonly made to agree with an appellative noun put in apposition with the proper name. Thus : “ the wise

Scipio" is *Scīpiō*, vir sapientissimus; "wealthy Capua" is *Capua*, urbs opulentissima.

a. Adjectives of quantity or number, however, are common as attributives. Thus: *tōta Hispānia*, entire Spain; *Rōmānī duo*, two Romans. So also in expressions like *Pompēius māgnus*, Pompey the Great; *Karthāgō nova*, new Carthage; *Scīpiō māior*, Scipio the elder.

442. The superlatives *summus*, *īmus*, *ūltimus*, *extrēmus*, *prīmus*, with the word *medius*, are used, directly agreeing with a noun, to denote the TOP or BOTTOM, HIGHEST, FIRST, MIDDLE part of, etc. Thus: —

Summus mōns, the top of the mountain; *in extrēmā ōrātiōne*, at the end of his speech; *mediā ab urbe*, from the middle of the city; *prīmā aestāte*, at the beginning of summer.

So, *novissimō āgmine*, on the rear of the line of march.

For special uses of Comparatives and Superlatives, see 164.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

Personal and Possessive Pronouns.

443. In the FIRST PERSON the plural of the personal and possessive pronouns is often used, out of politeness, for the singular (*plūrālis modestiae*). Thus: —

Hunc librum ad tē dē senectūte mīsīmus, this book I have written on old age and dedicated to you (Cic., *Sen.*, i., 3); *Catōnis sermō explicābit nostram omnem dē senectūte sententiam*, Cato's words will explain all my opinion about old age (Cic., *ibīdem*).

a. The plural of the SECOND PERSON is *never* used as in English for the singular. When it seems to be so used, it will always be found that more persons than the individual addressed are referred to; as, for instance, his family or comrades.

444. The possessive pronouns, like the personals (cf. 316, a), are expressed only when *emphatic* (as marking a contrast) or to *avoid ambiguity*. In the first case they precede, in the second they follow, their noun. Thus: —

Deinde egō illum dē suō rēgnō, ille mē dē nostrā rē pūblicā percontātus est, then I questioned him about his kingdom and he me about our state (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, vi., 9); *vestra vērō quae dīcitur vīta mors est*, but your so called life is really death (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, vi., 14).

Quōcircā sī sapientiam meam admīrārī solētis — quae utinam dīgna esset opīniōne vestrā nostrōque cōgnōmine! — in hōc sumus sapientēs, quod, etc., therefore if you are wont to look with admiration upon my wisdom — oh that it were worthy of your good opinion and my surname (*i. e.*, *Sapiens*)! — it is in this that I am wise, that, etc. (Cic., *Sen.*, 2, 5).

Reflexive and Intensive Pronouns.

445. (1.) The reflexive pronouns, *sē* and *suus*, are used primarily to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand. Thus: —

Oppidānī facinus in sē ac suōs foedum et ferum cōnsciscunt, the townspeople resolve upon a barbarous and revolting deed against themselves and theirs (Līv., xxviii., 22, 5).

Ipsē se quisque dīligit, nōn ut aliquam ā sē ipse mercēdem exigat cārītātis suae, sed quod per sē sibi quisque cārus est, every one loves himself, not in the expectation of getting from himself any reward whatever for his fondness, but because every one is fond of himself for his own sake (Cic., *Am.*, 21, 80).

Ariovistus respondit nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī, Ariovistus answered that he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his own rights (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 36).

Caesar, milītēs cohortātus ut suae prīstinae virtūtis memoriā retinērent, Caesar, having exhorted the soldiers to hold fast to the remembrance of their own old time valor (Caes., *B. G.*, ii., 21).

a. Thus in the Indirect Discourse *sē* regularly refers to the speaker, while the person addressed is referred to by *illum* or *eum*.

(2.) In dependent clauses which are so thoroughly subordinated that the subject of the main clause is left more prominently in the mind than the subject of the subordinate clause, *sē* and *suus* refer to the subject of the main clause, unless ambiguity might be caused thereby. Thus : —

Ōrātor sagūciter pervēstīget quid suī cīvēs cōgitent, opīnentur, expectent, our orator will cleverly search out the thoughts, opinions, and expectations of his own countrymen (cf. Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 51, 223).

Āfricānus, sī sua rēs agerētur, tēstimōnium nōn dīceret, Africanus would not be giving evidence, if it were his case that was before the court (Cic., *Rōsc. Am.*, 36, 103).

Camillus mihi scripsit tē sēcum locūtum esse, Camillus wrote me that you had talked with him (Cic., *Att.*, xi., 23, 1).

a. This reference of *sē* or *suus* chiefly occurs where from the nature of the situation a reflexive referring to the subject of the subordinate clause would be unnatural or impossible, as in the examples, and where if the dependent sentence were independent it would not contain a reflexive. Thus the first and third examples above would become : —

Quid cōgitant (etc.) cīvēs eius (i. e., ōrātōris) ; tū cum eō (i. e., Camillō) locūtus es.

b. If any ambiguity might arise, *ipse* is used in the subordinate clause to refer to the subject of the main clause. Thus : —

Iugurtha lēgātōs mīsīt quī ipsī liberisque vītā petērent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to beg for his life and his children's (cf. Sall., *Iug.*, 46, 2).

446. *Sē* and *suus* may further be used, when it can be done without ambiguity, to refer to words other than the subject, especially : —

(1.) To the person *thought of* as acting, though not grammatically the subject. Thus : —

Ā Caesare invītor ut sim sibi lēgātus, I am invited by Caesar to be his lieutenant ; *vōs ex M. Favōniō audistis*

Clodium sibi dixisse peritūrum Milōnem, you have heard Marcus Favonius say that Clodius had told him that Milo should die (Cic., *Mil.*, 16, 44); *contentum suis rebus esse sunt m̄ximae dīvitiae*, to be content with one's lot is great riches.

(2.) In various cases where the English puts in "own" or "very." Thus:—

Rōmānīs multitudō sua auxit animum, their very numbers increased the courage of the Romans; *valētūdinem ipsam per sē expetimus*, we aim at good health for its own sake.

a. Thus sometimes two or more instances of *sē* occur in the same sentence referring to different persons. Thus:—

Scythae petēbant ut rēgis suī fīliam m̄trimōniō sibi iungeret, the Scythians asked him [*i. e.*, Alexander] to unite the daughter of their king to himself in marriage (Curt.); *quod sibi Caesar dēnūtiāret sē Haeduōrum iniūriās nōn neglētūrum*, *nēmīnem sēcum sine suā perniciē contendisse*, as to Caesar's announcement to him [Ariovistus] that he [Caesar] would not disregard the wrongs done to the Haeduans, nobody had fought with him [Ariovistus] without coming to grief himself [*i. e.*, *nēmō*] (Caes., *B. G.*, i. 36).

447. The place of the third personal pronoun when not reflexive is supplied by *is*, *ea*, *id*, or, if a stronger form is wanted, by *ille* or *hīc*. Thus:—

Quod ferē cottidiānīs proeliīs cum Germānīs contendunt cum aut suis fīnibus eōs prohibent, aut ipsī in eōrum fīnibus bellum gerunt, because they struggle in almost daily battles with the Germans, when either they try to keep them out of their country or themselves make war in the Germans' country (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 1); *Ariovistus respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse*; *sī quid ille sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre*, Ariovistus answered that if he had wanted any thing of Caesar he should have gone to him; if Caesar wanted any thing of him he ought to come to him (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 34).

a. Sometimes the demonstrative is used where the reflexive

would seem more natural. Here the writer changes for the moment from the point of view of the subject to his own point of view. Thus:—

Helvētīi persuādent Rauracīs ut unū cum iīs proficiscantur, the Helvetians persuaded the Rauraci to go forth with them (Caes.); *ita sē gessit [Ligārius] ut eī pācem esse expedīret*, Ligarius so conducted himself that it was for his advantage to have peace (Cic.); [*Delphōs*] *postquam ventum est, cupīdō incēssit animōs iuvenum scīscitandī ad quem eōrum rēgnum Rōmānum esset ventūrum*, after they had come to Delphi a desire entered the minds of the young men to find out to which of them the Roman kingdom was to come (Liv., i., 56, 10).

448. The intensive *ipse* is used:—

(1.) To express the emphasis which is given in English by “himself,” “herself,” “itself,” or “very,” or by some circumlocution like that in the last example below. Thus:—

Ipsa spēs inopiam sūstentābat, their hope itself (or their very hope) made their want endurable; *ā multīs ipsa virtūs contemnitur*, virtue herself is despised by many; *praecipitur ut nōbīsmet ipsīs imperēmus*, it is taught that we should exercise control over ourselves; *medicī ipsī sē cūrāre nōn possunt*, physicians cannot cure themselves; *Lucretia sē ipsa interēmit*, Lucretia killed herself with her own hand.

Cf. also the first example under 447.

a. The Romans had a fancy for making *ipse* agree with the subject, as in the last two examples, where we put “self” with the object.

(2.) To refer (in the same way that *sē* refers to the subject of its own sentence), to a person or thing in another sentence connected with its own; as:—

Ariovistus respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, etc.

See this example under 447 on preceding page, and also cf. 445, 2, b.

449. The reciprocal meaning of the English “each other,” “one another,” is expressed in Latin as follows:—

(1.) By *inter nōs*, *inter vōs*, and, for the third person, when the reference is to a nominative or an accusative, by *inter sē*; otherwise by *inter ipsōs*. Thus:—

Inter nōs nātūrā coniūctī sumus, we are bound to each other by natural ties; *frātrēs inter sē cum fōrmā tum mōribus similēs*, brothers resembling each other in both person and character (Cic.); *ferās inter sēsē conciliat nātūra*, nature makes wild beasts agree with one another (Cic.); *incidunt aliqua a doctīs etiam inter ipsōs mūtūo reprehēnsa*, some things come in which learned people reciprocally blame in each other (Quint.).

a. With *inter sē* a reflexive accusative or dative is omitted; as:—

Puerī amant (sc. *sē*) *inter sē*, the boys love each other; *cīvēs inter sē* (sc. *sibī*) *grātulābantur*, the citizens congratulated each other.

(2.) Or *alter*, repeated in a different case, may be used when only two persons or things are meant; *alius*, if more than two are meant. The plural of *alter* is used of two parties. Thus:—

Militēs alius alium hortātur, the soldiers encourage one another; *noxīi ambō alter in alterum causam cōferunt*, both being guilty they each throw the blame upon the other; *alterī alterōs vincere quōvīs modō volunt*, each side wishes to beat the other by any possible means.

Cf. also, *hominēs inter sē aliī aliīs prōdesse volunt*, men wish to benefit each other reciprocally.

(3.) Or a noun or pronoun may be repeated in a different case. Thus:—

Tantae fuērunt tenebrae ut per bīdium nēmō hominem homō āgnōsceret, the darkness was so great that for two days men could not recognize each other at all (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 38, 96); *Atticus moriēns nōn ex vitā sed ex domō in domum migrāre vidēbātur*, Atticus in dying seemed not to be moving out of life but out of one home into another (cf. *Nep.*, xxv., 22);

neque dīiūdicārī posset uter utrī virtūte anteferendus vidēretur, nor could it be decided which of the two seemed more admirable in valor than the other (Caes., *B. G.*, v., 44).

Demonstrative Pronouns.

In addition to what was said of the demonstratives in 181, the following points deserve notice : —

450. (1.) *Hīc* (especially the neuter *hōc*) is used to refer to something immediately to be introduced ; but if the thing is to be marked emphatically as opposed to other things said, *ille* (especially *illud*) is used. Thus : —

Inter omnēs hōc cōstat, virōrum esse fortium toleranter dolōrem patī, all men are agreed upon this point, that to suffer pain with patient endurance is characteristic of brave men ; *hōc modō locūtus est*, he spoke as follows.

But : *cum multa alia mīrabilia sunt tum illud imprīmīs*, not only are there many other admirable things, but this is especially admirable ; *illud vērō idem Caecilius vitīosius*, but the following remark of the same Caecilius is more reprehensible (Cic., *Sen.*, 8, 25).

(2.) *Ille* often refers to that which is well known, famous, or of general notoriety. Thus : —

Mēdēa illa, the Medea of story ; *māgnō illī Alexandrō simillimus*, closely resembling the (well known) great Alexander.

(3.) *Is* is used as the antecedent of a relative which describes a class of persons or things = “ he who,” “ the one who,” “ such as.” Thus : —

Eum quī palam est adversārius facile cavendō vitāre possīs, one who is openly an enemy you can easily escape by guarding against him ; *neque enim tū is es quī quid sīs nesciās*, for you are not such a person as not to know what you are (Cic.).

a. Is is sometimes used to resume mention of a preceding subject where it seems unnecessary ; as : —

Servus meus aufūgit ; is est in prōvinciā tuā, a slave of mine has run away ; he is in your domain.

b. When “that” or “those of” is used in English instead of the repetition of a noun, no pronoun is used in Latin. Thus:—

Philippus hostium manūs saepe vitāvit, suōrum effugere nōn valuit, Philip often escaped the hands of his enemies, but did not succeed in avoiding those of his own subjects (Curt.); *Numae rēgnum multō erat pācātius quam Rōmulī*, Numa’s reign was much more peaceful than that of Romulus. (Cf. also 353, e).

Relative Pronouns.

In addition to what was said in 342–344 about relative pronouns, the following points should be noted:—

451. The relative is often used to connect an independent sentence with what has gone before, where in English a different form of connection is used. Thus:—

Multūs ad rēs perūtīlēs Xenophōntis librī sunt, quōs legite, quaesō, studiōsē, Xenophon’s works are very profitable in many respects, and I beg you read them zealously; *quae cum ita sint, Catilīna, perge quō coepistī*, now since this is so, Catiline, go on as you have begun.

a. A special instance of this connecting relative is seen in the use of *quod sī, quod nisi*, for “but if,” “and if,” or “if not,” where the *quod* is really accusative of specification.

452. The Latin expresses “such is my, your,” etc., and “so-called,” by a relative, as follows:—

Quae tua est prūdentiā, such is your discretion; *sī mihi negotium permīsissēs, quī meus in tē amor est, cōnfēcissem*, if you had entrusted the business to me, I should have accomplished it, such is my love for you; *vestra quae dīcitur * vīta*, your so-called life.

453. The difference between Latin and English use should be observed in relative clauses like the following:—

Thrasymbulō corōna ā populō data est, quam quod amor

* In this use the relative clause is usually thus inserted between an attributive and its noun.

civium dēderat nūllam habuit invidiam, a wreath was given by the people to Thrasybulus which caused no envy because the love of his countrymen had given it; *adsentior Platōnī quem tū quantū faciūs sciō*, I agree with Plato, and I know how highly you esteem him; *nōn satis politus es eīs artibus, quās quī tenent ērudītī appellantur*, you are not well enough perfected in those branches which cause their possessors to be called educated.

Indefinite Pronouns.

The following points in the use of the indefinite pronouns should be noted:—

454. *Quisquam* is the most general of the indefinite pronouns, and means “anybody at all.” *Quīvīs* and *quīlibet* are nearly as indefinite, meaning “any one you please.” Thus:—

Quamdiū quisquam erit, quī tē dēfendere audeat, vivēs, as long as there shall be anybody who will venture to defend you, you shall live (Cic., *Cat.*, i., 2, 6); *sī quisquam est timidus in magnīs periculōsisque rēbus, is ego sum*, if any one is timid in great and dangerous things, I am he (Cic., *Fam.*, vi., 14, 1); *cuivīs potest accidere quod cuiquam potest*, what can happen to anybody at all, can happen to anybody you will (*i. e.*, to everybody) (Sen., *Tr.*, 11, 6); *omnia sunt eiusmodi quīvīs ut perspicere possit*, all are of such a nature that any one you please can understand them (Cic.); *hic apud māiōrēs nostrōs adhibēbātur perītus, nunc quīlibet*, in such a case an expert used to be employed in the time of our ancestors, now any one at all [will do]. (Cic.); *nōn cuivīs hominī contingit*, it does not fall to every man’s good fortune (Hor.).

a. Sometimes the verb part of *quīvīs* and *quīlibet* is inflected. Thus:—

Dominus vinō quid volet faciet, the master will do whatever he likes with the wine (Catō, *R. R.*, 47 and 48, 2); *facile cui vellēs tuam causam probārēs*, you could have proved your case to any one you wished (Cic., *Verr.*, iv., 12, 28).

455. (1.) *Quisquam*, with the corresponding adjective *ūllus*, is used especially in negative sentences, or sentences implying a negation. Thus:—

Neque ex castris Catilinae quisquam omnium discēsserat, nor had any one at all deserted from Catiline's camp (Cic.); *nec ūllō cāsū potest contingere ut ūlla intermissio fiat officī*, nor can it by any chance happen that there be any interruption of the obligation of duty (Cic.); *an quisquam potest sine perturbātiōne mentis irāscī?* or can any one indulge in anger without disturbance of his mental equipoise? (Cic., *Tūsc.*, iv., 24, 54); *taetrior hīc tyrannus Syracūsānīs fuit quam quisquam superiōrum*, this tyrant was more loathsome to the people of Syracuse than any of his predecessors (Cic.).

a. Instead of *nōn quisquam*, unless the pronoun is rather emphatic, *nēmō* or *nihil* is used, and similarly *nūllus* instead of *nōn ūllus*. *Nūllus*, besides its adjective use, supplies the place of the genitive and ablative singular and the plural of *nēmō*, and the cases of *nihil* other than nominative and accusative singular.*

b. *Nēmō* is used, not *nūllus*, with adjectives used as substantives; as, *nēmō Rōmānus*, no Roman.

456. *Quis* (*quī*) is the unemphatic “any,” “one,” and is used chiefly after *sī*, *nisi*, *nē*, *num*, and the pronouns, as *quō*, *quantō*, etc. Thus:—

Sī quis mīrātur, if any one wonders; *num quis hōc nēscit?* does not every one know this? *iūstitiae primum mūnus est ut nē cui quis noceat*, the first injunction of justice is that one shall harm no one; *dētrahere quid dē aliquō*, to take away something from somebody.

a. After *sī*, *nisi*, *nē*, *num*, the forms *quis* and *quī* are used indifferently as substantives or adjectives; otherwise, as with the interrogative pronoun, *quis* is substantive, *quī*, adjective.

457. *Aliquis*, some one or other, any one, is less indefinite than *quis*, as is seen especially after *sī*, *nisi*, *nē*, etc. Thus:—

Sī est aliquī sēsus in morte praeclārōrum virōrum, if

* There is, however, also a declined form of *nihil*. (Cf. 137, 1, a.)

illustrious men have some consciousness when dead (Cic., *Sēst.*, 62, 131); *timēbat Pompēius omnia nē aliquid vōs timērētis*, Pompey watched all things with anxiety that you might have no anxiety (Cic.).

a. Aliquis is especially common in the emphatic meaning *some at least*. Thus :—

Est hōc aliquid, tametsi nōn est satis, this is something at least, although it is not enough (Cic., *Caec.*, 15, 47); *multī sine doctrīnā aliquid omnium generum et artium cōsequuntur*, many without teaching acquire something in all branches of learning (Cic.).

458. *Quispiam*, some one, is more definite than *aliquis*. Thus :—

Hērēditās est pecūnia, quae morte alicūius ad quempiam pervenit iūre, an inheritance is money which at some one's death comes to a person legally (Cic.); *quaeret fortasse quispiam*, some one will perhaps ask.

459. *Quīdam*, some particular one, is the most definite of these pronouns, and implies that a person or thing is definitely known, though indefinitely described. Thus :—

Quīdam dē contlēgīs nostrīs, one of my colleagues (Cic.); *scīs mē quōdam tempore Metapontum vēnisse tēcum*, you know that at a certain time I went with you to Metapontum (Cic.).

a. Quīdam often expresses what in English is denoted by “a sort of;” as :—

Mīlvō est quoddam bellum nātūrāle cum corvō, the kite has a sort of natural antagonism toward the crow (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 49, 125).

460. When only two persons or things are referred to, the following pronouns are used :—

alter, the other.

uter? which?

neuter, neither.

uterque, both.

Corresponding to the following, if more than two are referred to :—

alius, another.

quis? who?

nēmō, nūllus, none.

quisque, each.

a. *Ambō* is used for “both” only when the thing said applies in the same way to the two objects; otherwise *uterque* is used; as:—

Caesar atque Pompēius dīversa sibi ambō cōsilia capiunt . . . eōdemque diē uterque eōrum ex castrīs exercitum edūcunt, Caesar and Pompey both adopt different plans, . . . but on the same day both lead out their armies from camp (Caes., *B. C.*, iii., 30).

b. *Alter* is used for the English “one’s neighbor;” as:—

Nihil alterius causā facere, to do nothing for one’s neighbor’s sake.

c. The following distinctions should be observed:—

<i>alter</i>	= the other; <i>alterī</i> = the other party.
<i>alius</i>	= another; <i>aliī</i> = others.
<i>cēteri</i>	= all the others, the rest.
<i>alteruter</i>	= one or the other.

Cf. also 449, 2.

d. For the convenience of the pupil the following series of the words for number is given:—

<i>paucī</i>	= a few, only a few.
<i>aliquot</i>	= some, not many, several.
<i>nōnnūllī</i>	= some (indeterminate).
<i>plūrēs</i>	= several, rather many.
<i>multī</i>	= many.
<i>plūrimī</i>	= very many.
<i>plērīque</i>	= most.
<i>ūnusquisque</i>	= each and all.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

Tenses.

461. The IMPERFECT, PRESENT, and FUTURE mark an action or event simply as taking place (beginning or continuing) in the PRESENT, PAST, or FUTURE respectively.

462. The PERFECT, PLUPERFECT, and FUTURE PERFECT mark an action or event as COMPLETED.

(1.) The PERFECT marks something as completed either (a) in the PRESENT (perfect DEFINITE) or (b) in the INDEFINITE PAST (i. e., without reference to any other event — HISTORICAL perfect or AORIST).^{*} Thus : —

(a.) [*Nātūra*] *oculōs membrānīs tenuissimīs vestīvit et saepsit*, nature has clothed and protected the eye with a very delicate membrane (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 57, 142).

(b.) *Ita tantum bellum . . . extrēmā hieme adparāvit, ineunte vĕre sūscēpit, mediā aestāte cōnfēcit*, thus he got ready for this great war in the last part of winter, entered upon it at the beginning of spring, and finished it in mid-summer (Cic., *Lĕg. Mān.*, 12, 35).

(2.) The PLUPERFECT marks something as completed at or before the beginning of some other PAST action or event. Thus : —

Pyrrhī temporibus iam Apollō versūs facere dēsierat, in the time of Pyrrhus Apollo had already ceased to give oracles (Cic., *Dīv.*, ii., 56, 116).

(3.) The FUTURE PERFECT marks something as completed at or before the time of some other FUTURE action or event. Thus : —

Cum tū haec legēs, egō Caesarem fortasse convēnerō, when you are reading this I shall perhaps have met Caesar.

The following points in the use of the tenses deserve special mention : —

463. Statements which are true of all time, and have therefore a special interest in the present, such as general truths, are expressed by the present tense. Thus : —

Labor omnia vincit, labor conquers all things.

a. Sometimes a general statement, instead of being thus *directly stated* by the present, is *implied* by a perfect (on the principle that what has often happened is the natural thing to

^{*} The pupil should perhaps be warned that the Romans did not feel this difference as we feel it. Otherwise, they would probably have expressed it by a difference of form.

expect). The perfect in this use is sometimes called the GNOMIC perfect, but the general nature of the tense in these cases is so evidently perfect that a special name seems undesirable. Thus : —

Avāritia pecūniae studium habet, quam nēmō sapiēns concupīvit, greed involves a zeal for money which no wise man desires* (Sall., *Cat.*, 11, 3) ; *ob dēbilitātem animī multī parentēs, multī amīcōs nōnnullī patriam, plērīque autem sē ipsōs penitus perdidērunt*, through weakness of mind many utterly ruin their parents, many their friends, some their country, and most people themselves (Cic., *Fīn.*, i., 15, 49) ; *nōn domus et fundus, nōn aeris acervus et aurī aegrōtō dominō dēdūxit corpore febrēs, nōn animō cūrās*, not houses and lands nor heaps of coin take away disease from the ailing body of their owner or care from his mind (Hor., *Epist.*, i., 2, 47).

464. The present and imperfect are often used of repeated or customary actions, and of attempted or intended actions. Thus : —

Cotīdiē in senātum venit Catilīna, Catiline comes daily to the Senate ; *haec audiēbant antea, nunc vident*, they used to hear these things before, now they see them ; *in exsiliū ēiciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam* ? was I trying to drive into exile a man who I saw had already actually entered upon war ? (Cic., *Cat.*, ii., 6, 14).

465. The present is used in giving the statements of past writers whose works are still extant ; as : —

Homērus dicit ē Nestoris linguā melle dulciōrem fluxisse sermōnem, Homer says that from Nestor's tongue flowed speech sweeter than honey.

466. The present is sometimes used instead of the historical perfect in lively narration, to make a more vivid picture (HISTORICAL present). Thus : —

Dēsiliunt ex equīs, prōvolant in prīmum, they spring from their horses, they fly to the front (Liv., iii., 62, 8).

* *I. e.*, none ever has desired, and therefore we may infer that none ever will do so.

467. With *iam dūdum*, *iam diū*, *iam prīdem*, and sometimes without these words, the present and imperfect are used, where in English the perfect and pluperfect are preferred, to indicate an action which has been going on some time and is still going on (PRESENT), or which at a certain past time had been and was still going on (IMPERFECT). Thus:—

Iam diū ignōrō quid agās, I have long been in ignorance as to how you are; *tot annōs bellum gerō*, all these years I have been waging war; *audiēbat iam dūdum verba*, he had heard the words for some time.

468. With *dum* (= “while”) the present is regularly used to denote an action going on at the same time as another, even when the two actions belong to past time.

Thus:—

Dum egō in Siciliā sum, *nūlla statua dēiecta est*, while I was in Sicily not a statue was overthrown (Cic., *Verr.*, ii., 66, 161).

NOTE. In the meanings “until” and “as long as,” *dum* takes the past tenses for past actions. Also in the meaning “while,” if the main verb denotes a *continued* action or state (often in Livy and once or twice earlier).

469. With *postquam* (*postequam*), “after,” and with the expressions for “as soon as” — *ubi*, *ubi primum*, *ut*, *ut primum*, *cum primum*, *simul ac* (*simul atque* or *simul* alone), — the perfect is the regular tense, though the pluperfect would seem more logically exact. Thus:—

Sed postquam aspexī, ilicō cōgnōvī, but after I looked at [it] I recognized it at once (Ter., *Heaut.*, iv., 1, 43); *Pompeius, ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, acie excēssit*, as soon as Pompey saw his cavalry routed he withdrew from battle (Caes., *B. C.*, iii., 94); *cum primum Rōmam vēnī, nihil prius faciendum mihi putāvī, quam ut tibi grātulārer*, as soon as I (had) reached Rome, I thought it my first duty to tender you my congratulations.

a. But the imperfect is used if a situation is to be described as a continued action; the pluperfect, if as the result of an action; as:—

Ut domum redūcēbātur, fit obviam eī C. Cūrīō, when he was being escorted home, Gaius Curio met him; ut ad mare excubuerant, accēssere hostēs, as soon as they had got their guard posted, the enemy drew near.

b. Or if a distinct interval of time has elapsed between the event introduced by *postquam* and the main event, the clause with *postquam* regularly takes the pluperfect; as:—

Hannibal annō tertiō postquam domō profūgerat cum quīnque nāvibus Āfricam accēssit, in the third year after he had gone into exile, Hannibal went to Africa with five ships (Nep., *Han.*, 8).

Cf. the English use of tenses with “after” and “as soon as.”

470. Other cases where a different tense is used in Latin from the one which English would lead us to expect are as follows:—

(1.) In letters sometimes an *imperfect* (or *historical perfect*) is used for the present, or a *pluperfect* for a perfect. The writer thus puts himself at the time when the letter will be read (EPISTOLARY imperfect and pluperfect). Thus:—

Nihil habēbam quod scrīberem; neque enim novī quicquam audīveram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard nothing new.

(2.) A *perfect* or *pluperfect* is used in dependent clauses (especially with *cum*, *sī*, etc.) indicating a customary action or event, where English usage would lead us to expect a present or imperfect.* Thus:—

Cum ad villam venī, hōc ipsum nihil agere et plānē cēssāre mē dēlectat, when I come to my country seat, this very doing nothing and absolutely resting delight me (Cic., *Ōr.*, 2, 6); cum rosam vīderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrabātur, whenever he saw a rose, he thought spring was beginning (Cic., *Verr.*, v., 10, 27).

(3.) In subordinate clauses depending on a past tense and stating something which was true at the time mentioned and is

* The present or imperfect in the main clause shows the repetition of the act, and the subordinate clause is regarded more directly from the time of the main clause than in English.

still true, the *imperfect* is sometimes used where the present might be expected. Thus : —

Pāstum animantibus largē et cōpiōsē nātūra eum quī cuique aptus erat comparāvit, nature generously and abundantly prepared for the animals that food which was suited to each (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 47, 121); *vidē, nē, cum omnēs rēctae animī adfectiōnēs virtūtēs adpellentur, nōn sit hōc proprium nōmen omnium, sed ab eā, quae ūna cēterīs excellēbat, omnēs nōminātae sint*, see, lest, while all right dispositions of the mind are called virtues, this name does not properly belong to all, but all are named from the one which in itself surpasses all the others (Cic., *Tūsc.*, ii., 18, 43).

(4.) The *imperfect* is sometimes used to express surprise at something just discovered, though it has been going on for some time; as : —

Ēheu, pater mī, tū hīc erās? ah! father, you here? Cf. also the pluperfect, *haud aspexeram*, I didn't see [you] (Ter., *Ad.*, 373).

(5.) The *perfect* is sometimes used instead of a future perfect to indicate vividly what will happen if something else happens (as if it had already happened). Thus : —

[*Brūtus*] *sī cōservātus erit, vīcimus*, if Brutus shall be saved, we have conquered (Cic., *Fam.*, xii., 6, 2).

471. The *perfect* is sometimes used to express what has been the case, but is so no longer. Thus : —

Fuimus Trōes, we are no longer Trojans (Verg., *Aen.*, ii., 325); *trīste enim est nōmen ipsum carendī quia sūbicitur haec vīs: habuit nōn habet*, for the very word “deprivation” is melancholy, because the meaning “had but has no longer” underlies it (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 36, 87).

a. In a few verbs the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect have acquired the meaning of the present, imperfect, and future of a kindred verb. Thus: *nōscō*, find out; *nōvī*, know (i. e., have found out). So *odī* = I hate, *meminī* = I remember.

NOTE. The tenses in Latin are used in general with much greater exactness than in English, and the Romans were particularly fond of the future perfect tense.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

NOTE. In its original shape in the Indo-European the subjunctive seems to have been a *tense* rather than a *mood*, having about the meaning indicated by the English “am going to.” This meaning soon broadened so as to include that kind of indeterminate futurity involved in the ideas which we express by “may,” “could,” “would,” etc. It is this quality in the mood as we find it in Latin which explains the absence of special future tense forms,* and which is also at the bottom of the distinction which grew up between the subjunctive and the indicative; namely, that while the indicative represents a thing as a *fact* of the past, present, or future, the subjunctive came to mark a thing as something conceived in the mind merely (*i. e.*, as something which might or would be a fact, if the thinker’s idea should be realized). This notion of indeterminate futurity is more or less distinctly traceable in the four uses of the subjunctive in Independent Sentences. (See 472–475.)

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

Hortatory Subjunctive.

472. The HORTATORY subjunctive expresses (1) an EXHORTATION or ENTREATY; (2) a COMMAND or PROHIBITION; (3) an OBLIGATION; (4) a CONCESSION. The negative is *nē*. Thus:—

(1.) *Meminerimus etiam adversus infimōs iūstitiam esse servandam*, let us remember that justice must be observed even towards the humblest (Cic., *Off.*, i., 13, 41).

(2.) *Vīribus ūtāre, dum adsint, cum absint, nē requīrās*, use your strength while it lasts, but when it is gone do not pine for it (Cic., *Sen.*, 10, 33); *suum quisque nōscat ingenium*, let every one study his own temperament; *dōnīs impīi nē plācāre audeant deōs*, let not the impious venture to try to propitiate

* If it was desirable to guard against a possible ambiguity, or to emphasize distinctly the notion of futurity, the Romans used periphrastic forms (*factūrus sim, essem*, etc.).

the gods with gifts (Cic.); *nihil incommodō valētūdinis tuae fēceris*, do nothing prejudicial to your health (Cic.).

(3.) *Ut homōst, ita mōrem gerās*, you must regulate your conduct by the character of your master (*i. e.*, like master, like man) (Ter., *Ad.*, 431); *quae hīc erant, cūrārēs*, you should have looked out for what were here (Ter., *Hec.*, 230); *nē popōscissēs*, you should not have asked (Cic., *Att.*, ii., 1, 3).

(4.) *Sed ierit ad bellum, dissēnserit nōn ā tē solum, vērum etiam ā frātribus: hī tē ōrant tuī*, but grant that he went to the war, that he took the other side not only from you but also from his brothers: they — and they were on your side — beg you [to spare him] (Cic., *Lig.*, 12, 35); *nē sint in senectūte vīrēs: nē postulantur quidem vīrēs ā senectūte*, suppose there is no strength in old age: neither is strength demanded from old age (Cic., *Sen.*, 11, 34); *decīēs centēna dedissēs huic parcō paucīs contentō*, suppose you had given this frugal fellow whose wants are few some million or so (Hor., *Sat.*, i., 3, 15).

a. The singular of the second person of the present tense is not used, until after Livy's time, for *commands*, *exhortations*, or *prohibitions*, unless the subject is indefinite (*i. e.*, "you" = "any one"). (Cf. the examples.)

b. In the perfect tense the second person is used in *commands* and *exhortations* only when they are negative (*i. e.*, when they are really *prohibitions*). The imperative is used for positive commands, etc. (See 527.)

c. The perfect and pluperfect differ from the present and imperfect respectively only in the greater precision which comes from the notion of *completed* action, but even this distinction in the case of the present and perfect is almost intangibly subtle.

d. Commands, exhortations, entreaties, and prohibitions naturally occur only in the primary tenses (present and perfect).

Optative Subjunctive.

473. The OPTATIVE subjunctive is used to express a wish, sometimes alone, sometimes with *utinam* or *ut*, "O that!" The negative is *nē*. Thus: —

Valeant cīvēs meī, sint incolumēs, sint beātī, may my countrymen prosper in safety and happiness (Cic., *Mil.*, 34, 93); *nē vivam sī sciō*, may I die, if I know (Cic., *Att.*, iv., 16); *falsus utinam vātēs sim*, oh, may I prove mistaken in my prophecy! (Liv., xxi., 10, 10); *utinam P. Clōdius viveret*, would that Publius Clodius were living! (Cic., *Mil.*, 38, 103); *utinam mē mortuum vīdissēs*, would that you had seen me dead (Cic., *Q. Fr.*, i., 3, 1).

a. The present and perfect imply nothing as to the fulfillment of the wish, but the perfect is chiefly confined to early Latin and the poets. The imperfect implies the non-fulfillment of the wish in present time, the pluperfect in past time.

b. *Utinam* or *ut* is almost always used when the tense is imperfect or pluperfect. These particles tend to give more formality or solemnity to the expression of the wish.

c. Sometimes instead of the simple subjunctive, *velim*, *nōlim*, *mālim*, *vellem*, *nōllem*, *māllem*, or *cuperem*, is used with the substance of the wish added in the infinitive or subjunctive. Thus:—

Tuam mihi darī velim, Cotta, *ēloquentiam*, I wish your eloquence might be given me, Cotta (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 59, 147); *vellem adesse posset Panaetius*, would that Panaetius could be here now.

NOTE. Here *velim*, *nōllem*, etc., are potential subjunctives (see 474). For the dependent subjunctive (like *posset* in the second example), see 491.

Potential Subjunctive.

474. The POTENTIAL subjunctive is used to express the shades of *possibility* and kindred ideas indicated in English by an unemphatic “may,” “might,” “can,” “could,” or “would.” The negative is *nōn* (*haud*, etc.). Thus:—

Hīc quaerat quispiam, at this point some one may ask (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 53, 133); *Platōnem nec nimis valdē nec nimis saepe laudāveris*, you cannot [could not] praise Plato too highly or too often (Cic., *Lēgg.*, iii., 1, 1); *hōc sine ūllā dubitātiōne*

cōfirmāverim *ēloquentiam rem esse omnium difficillimam*, this I would venture to assert without any hesitation, that eloquence is the hardest thing in the world [to acquire] (Cic., *Brūt.*, 6, 25); *itaque haud facile discernerēs utrum imperātōri an exercituī cārior esset*, therefore you could not easily tell whether he [Hannibal] was dearer to the general or to the army (Līv., xxi., 4, 3); *nūlla profectō alia gēns tantū mōle clādīs nōn obruta esset*, any other nation would have been buried beneath such a mass of disaster (Līv., xxii., 54, 10).

a. The primary tenses are used when the situation referred to is present, the secondary tenses when a past situation is involved. The distinction between the perfect and pluperfect on the one hand and the present and imperfect on the other is the same as in the hortatory use of the subjunctive. (See 472, c.)

b. The potential subjunctive is often used to put a statement mildly for courtesy's sake, and is then called by the special name *Subiunctivus modestiae*. Thus:—

Pāce tuā, patria, dixerim, with your permission, O my country, I would say (Cic., *Mil.*, 38, 103); *haud sciam an*, I could not tell whether (Cic., *Tūsc.*, iii., 24, 55). Cf. also the third example, above (*cōnfirmāverim*).

c. The second person singular of a general subject ("you" = "one," "anybody") is especially common: as:—

Quem neque glōria neque perīcula excitant, nēquiquam hortēre, him, whom neither glory nor danger rouses, you will exhort in vain (Sall., *Cat.*, 58, 2). Cf. also the second example, above (*laudāveris*).

d. If the potential idea is to be brought out emphatically, the verbs *possum*, can, and *licet*, may, are used. With these and similar verbs, as *dēbeō*, *oportet*, etc., and with adjectives of like meaning used with *sum*, sometimes also others, the indicative is often used where a potential subjunctive might be expected. The potential idea is here sufficiently indicated by the meaning of the word used. Thus:—

Perturbātiōnēs animōrum poteram mōrbōs appellāre, sed nōn conveniret ad omnia, I might call disturbances of the soul

diseases, but [the word] would not apply to all cases (Cic., *Fin.*, iii., 10, 35); *quantō melius fuerat. in hōc prōmissum patris nōn esse servātum*, how much better it would have been in this case for the father's promise not to have been kept (Cic., *Off.*, iii., 25, 94); *fuit tantī, mihi crēde*; *habērēs quod dēfenderēs*, it would have been worth the price, believe me; you would have some defense; *possum persequi permulta oblectāmenta rerum rusticārum, sed ea ipsa, quae dixi, sentiō fuisse longiōra*, I might tell of very many delights of farming, but I feel that what I have said has itself been rather long (Cic., *Sen.*, 16, 55); *longum est ea dicere; sed hōc breve dicam*, it were a long task to say that, but this I will say briefly (Cic., *Sēst.*, 5, 12).

NOTE. The present indicative is thus often used where in English the past potential is preferred, as in the last two examples.

Dubitative Subjunctive.

475. The DUBITATIVE subjunctive is used to put a question for rhetorical effect, where no answer is expected. Thus:—

Quid faciam, what can I do? (Hor., *Sat.*, ii., 1, 24); *quid facerem*, what could I do? (Verg., *Ec.*, i., 40); *quid hōc homine faciātis*, what would you do with such a man? *sed quaerō ā tē, cūr C. Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem*, but I ask you, why should I not have undertaken the defense of Gaius Cornelius? (Cic., *Vat.*, 2, 5); *egō tē vidēre nōluerim*, I unwilling to see you?

a. The present (or future) applies to a present situation, the imperfect and (rare) perfect to a past situation. Furthermore, in questions in positive form the present implies doubt simply, the imperfect implies that no other course than the one adopted was natural or possible. Questions in negative form imply that the doubt suggested is too preposterous to consider. (Cf. the examples.)

NOTE. The potential and dubitative subjunctives may, of course, occur in dependent clauses, especially in indirect questions. Thus:—

Hōc spatiō plūra facinora in sē victi edidērunt quam infēsti edidissent victōrēs, during this time the conquered performed more hostile acts against

themselves than angry conquerors would have done (Liv., xxxi., 18, 8); *pudet*; *nec quid agam neque quid huic respondeam sciō*, I am ashamed, and know not what to do or what answer to give him (Ter., *Ad.*, 485)

Cf. also the Constructions of Indirect Discourse, 514 ff.

For Concessive Dependent Clauses see 478-480.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Conditional Sentences.

NOTE. The clause containing the condition proper (i. e., the "if" clause) is called the *PROTASIS*, the other clause the *APODOSIS* or conclusion.

476. (1.) The *INDICATIVE* is used in conditional sentences to denote what is, was, or will be true, if something else is, was, or shall be true.

(2.) The *SUBJUNCTIVE* is used in conditional sentences to denote what would be or would have been true, if something else were, should be, or had been true.

a. With the indicative, therefore, the supposed case is treated as a *fact*, as to the existence of which the speaker or writer is uncertain; with the primary tenses of the subjunctive the supposed case is treated as something merely *assumed* for argument; with the secondary tenses of the subjunctive the supposed case is treated as *not a fact*.

b. The perfect subjunctive differs from the present only in marking *completed* action. The imperfect refers to present time or to a state or continued action in the past; the pluperfect to past time.

NOTE. The indicative implies nothing as to the reality of the *protasis*, but *ASSERTS* the reality of the *apodosis*, if the reality of the *protasis* be granted. The primary tenses of the subjunctive, in representing the case as merely assumed, hint that it is not actual, but indicate nothing as to its probability or even possibility, except that in so far as they involve a reference to the future they do not mark the case as distinctly impossible. The secondary tenses of the subjunctive mark the case distinctly as *not actual*, and are the only tenses that can be used when the supposed case is impossible, although they do not themselves *mark* it as impossible or even improbable. Thus: —

477. INDICATIVE.

Sī id facis, hodiē postrēmum mē vidēs, if this is what you are doing you see me to-day for the last time (Ter., *And.*, 322).

Quid? sī tyrannidem occupāre, sī patriam prōdere cōnābitur pater, silēbitne fīlius? again, if a father attempt to make himself ruler unconstitutionally, if he try to betray his country, will the son keep silent about it? (Cic., *Off.*, iii., 23, 90).

Sī mihi bonā rē publicā fruī nōn licuerit, at carēbō malā, if I may not enjoy a good government I shall at least not live under a bad one (Cic., *Mil.*, 34, 93).

Ratiōnem antiquī philosophī sententiæ suæ nōn fere reddēbant, nisi quid erat numeris aut dēscriptiōnibus explicandum, the philosophers of old were not in the habit of giving an account of their opinions unless they had to explain something by arithmetic or geometry (Cic., *Tusc.*, i., 17, 38).

Sic agam: sī quid vēnāle habuit Hēius, sī id, quantū aestimābat, tantū vendidit, dēsino quærere cūr ēmeris,

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Egō sī Scipionis dēsideriō mē movērī negem, mentiar, if I should say that I was not affected by a longing for Scipio, I should lie (Cic., *Am.*, 3, 10).

Sī gladium quis apud tē sānā mente dēposuerit, repetat insāniēns, reddere pecātum sit, if anybody should, being in sound mind, put a sword into your keeping and demand it in a fit of insanity, it would be wrong to return it (Cic., *Off.*, iii., 25, 95).

Sī aut collēgam, id quod māllem, tuī similem, L. Aemilī, habērēs, aut tū collēgæ tuī essēs similis, supervacānea esset orātiō mea, if you had, as I should prefer, a colleague like yourself, Lucius Aemilius, or if you were like your colleague, my words would be superfluous (Liv., xxii., 39, 1).

Nunc quemadmodum audiar sentiō, at tum sī dicerem, nōn audīrer, I see how attentively I am listened to now, but if I had spoken then I should not have been listened to (Cic., *Clu.*, 29, 80).

Sī Metellī fidē diffisus essem. iudicem eum nōn retinuissem, if I had distrusted

I will put it in this way : if Heius had anything to sell, and if he sold it for as much as he asked, I stop inquiring why you bought it (Cic., *Verr.*, iv., 5, 10).

Vel officiō, sī quid dēbuerat, vel errōrī, sī quid nēscierat, satisfactum esse dūxit, he thought he had met all the demands of allegiance if he had owed any, and had made good his error if through ignorance he had made any (Cic., *Dēiot.*, 5, 13).

the honor of Metellus, I should not have retained him upon the jury (cf. Cic., *Verr.*, Act 1, 31).

Ergō egō nisi peperissem, Rōma nōn oppūgnāretur; nisi fīlium habērem, libera in liberā patriā mortua essem, therefore, if I had not been a mother, Rome would not be under siege; if I did not have a son, I should have died in freedom in a free country (Līv., ii., 40).

a. The idea of non-fulfillment is not inherent in the secondary tenses of the subjunctive themselves. This idea comes from the feeling that the past is settled and irrevocable, and thus when a supposed case is referred to the past there is a much stronger feeling that the real state of the case was different than when a supposed case is referred to the present or future. It occasionally happens, however, that a supposition is thrown into the past without any implication as to its fulfillment, and then the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are still used in Latin. Thus : —

Sī conlibuisset, ab ōvō ūsque ad mālā citāret “*iō Bacchae*,” if the fancy had seized him, he would shout “Ho! Bacchants,” till he dropped * (Hor., *Sat.*, i., 3, 6).

b. The distinction between the primary and secondary tenses as to the implication of non-fulfillment had not yet become fully established in the times of Plautus and Terence, and the present in their plays sometimes occurs of unfulfilled conditions. Thus : —

* Literally, from the egg to the apples, i. e., from beginning to end. Cf., in English, “from the soup to the fruit course.”

For the much commoner occurrence of this use in Indirect Discourse (real or implied), see 516.

Adsum : nam sī absim, haud recūsem, quīn mihi male sit, mel meum, I am here, for if I were away, I should make no objection to its going hard with me, my honey (Plaut., *Curc.*, 164) ; *tū sī hīc sīs, aliter sentiās*, if you were in my shoes, you would feel differently (Ter., *And.*, 310).

c. With verbs like *possum, dēbeō, licet*, etc., and other expressions which in themselves denote necessity, possibility, power, duty, and the like, the indicative (imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect) is regularly used in classical Latin in the apodoses of conditions contrary to fact, where with other verbs the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is used. Thus : —

Quod esse caput dēbēbat, sī probārī posset, and this ought to be the main point, if it could be proved [as it cannot] (Cic., *Fīn.*, iv., 23) ; *sī ūnum diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit*, if you had delayed a single day, all would have had to die ; *sī mihi nōndum aetās vacātiōnem daret tamen aequum erat mē dīmītī*, if my age did not yet justify my exemption (as it does), yet it were just that I should be discharged.

Cf. also, under Potential Subjunctive, 474, d.

d. GENERAL CONDITIONS (*i. e.*, such as denote what repeatedly or always happens under certain circumstances) are expressed in Latin by the indicative, except in the two following cases : —

(1.) The protasis has the subjunctive in the second person singular of the present when the subject is indefinite (*i. e.*, “you” = “any one”), while in the other persons the indicative is employed, however general the application of the thing said. Thus : —

[*Mēns quoque et animus,*] *nisi tamquam lūminī oleum in-stillēs, exstinguuntur senectūte*, unless you drop oil into the lamp of the mind and soul, so to speak, their light goes out in old age (Cic., *Sen.*, 11, 36) ; but, *parvī sunt forīs arma, nisi est cōsiliū domī*, prowess of arms abroad is of little worth unless there be wisdom at home (Cic., *Off.*, i., 22, 76).

(2.) If the general condition refers to the past, the protasis

has the imperfect (or pluperfect) subjunctive in the Augustan poets and later writers of both verse and prose, where the republican writers use the indicative. Thus:—

Accūsātōrēs, sī facultās incideret, poenīs adficiēbantur, the accusers were [in every case] visited with punishment, if opportunity offered (Tac., *Ann.*, vi., 30); but, *si quod erat grande vās aut māius opus inventum, laetī adferēbant*, if any large vase or considerable work of art was found, they carried it to him [Verres] with joy (Cic., *Verr.*, iv., 21, 47).

NOTE. The subjunctive in case (2) is a product of Greek influence. It will be seen that in both (1) and (2) the apodosis has the indicative. (Cf. also 508, and 510, 1.)

e. The protasis may be implied in some other form of expression. Thus:—

Rogēs mē, quālem nātūrā deōrum esse dūcam, nihil fortasse respondeam, ask me what I think the nature of the gods is, and I shall perhaps have no answer to make (Cic., *N. D.*, i., 21, 57); *nam absque te esset, hodiē numquam ad sōlem occāsum vīverem*, for had it not been for you, I should never have lived to see the sun set to-day (Plaut., *Menn.*, 1024); *nōn mihī, nisi admonitō, vēnisset in mentem*, I should not have thought [of it] unless reminded (Cic., *dē Ōr.* ii., 42, 180); *nēmō umquam, sine māgnā spē immortalitātis, sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem*, no one would ever expose himself to death for his country without a great hope of immortal glory [such as he now has] (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 15, 32).

NOTE. In the development of language coördinate sentences were earlier than the subordinate constructions. This is well illustrated in such a sentence as the first example under e. It is but one step from *rogēs mē, nihil respondeam*, to *sī mē rogēs, nihil respondeam*. The protasis in all subjunctive conditions was in this way developed from the hortatory subjunctive, while the apodosis grew from the potential use, the two being collateral offshoots from the original notion of indeterminate futurity.

f. So one form of expression may be used in the protasis, another in the apodosis; and shades of meaning are thus sometimes indicated, especially by the poets, which can hardly be retained in an English translation. Thus:—

Atque adeō, sī facere possim, pietās prohibet, and in fact filial affection prevents, supposing I could do it (Plaut., *Ps.*, 290); *cantus et ē currū Lūnam dēducere temptat, et faceret, sī nōn aera repulsa sonent*, incantation tries to draw down the moon from her chariot, and would do it if the cymbals were not beaten till the echo [prevented] (Tib., i., 8, 21); *sī volēbās participāri, auferrēs dīmidium domum*, if you wanted to take a share, you might take half home (Pl., *Truc.*, iv., 2, 55); *mīrer, sī vāna vestra auctōritās ad plēbem est*, I should wonder if your influence counts for nothing with the commons (Liv., iii., 21, 4); *sī ipsa ratiō minus perficiet, ut mortem neglegere possīmus, at vīta ācta perficiat, ut satis superque vīxisse videāmur*, if Reason herself does not make me indifferent to death, yet the experience of life would make me seem to have lived quite long enough (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 45, 109); *Flāvī, dēliciās tuās Catullō, nei sint inlepidae atque inēlegantēs, vellēs dīcere nec tacēre possēs*, you would want to tell Catullus of your love, Flavius, and could not keep silent unless she be sordid and not very nice (Cat., 6, 1 ff.).

Concessive Clauses.

478. With *sī*, *sī māximē*, *etsī*, *tametsī*, *etiam sī*, concessive clauses take the indicative or subjunctive under precisely the same circumstances as conditional clauses with *sī*. Thus: —

INDICATIVE.

In quibus sī moderātiō illa, quae in nostrīs solet esse cōsulibus, nōn fuit, at fuit pompa, fuit speciēs, even if they had not that evenness of character which our consuls are wont to have, yet they had an impressive dignity of manner (Cic., *Pīs.*, 11, 24).

Nam sī egō dīgna hāc con-

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sī haec nōn gesta audīrētis, sed pīcta vidērētis, tamen appārēret uter esset insidiātor, even if you were not listening to these things as events described, but were looking at them delineated in color, yet you could tell which was the one who laid the snare (Cic., *Mil.*, 20, 54).

tumēliā sum māxumē, at tū indignus, quī facerēs tamen, for even though I deserve this insult ever so much, yet you were not the one to put it upon me (Ter., *Eun.*, 865).

Caesar, etsī nōndum eōrum cōnsilia cōgnōverat, tamen ex eō, quod obsidēs dare intermiserant, fore id, quod accidit, sūspicābātur, although Caesar had not yet discovered their designs, yet from the fact that they had neglected to send the usual hostages, he began to suspect what proved to be the case (Caes., *B. G.*, iv., 31).

Tametsī statim vīcisse dēbeō, tamen dē meō iūre dēcēdam, although an immediate victory is rightfully mine, I will retire from my right (Cic., *Rōsc. Am.*, 27, 73).

Quod crebrō [quis] videt, nōn mīrātur, etiam sī cūr fiat nēscit, what one sees frequently he does not marvel at, even if he does not know its cause (Cic., *Dīv.*, ii., 22, 49).

Etiam sī quid scribās nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen, even though you (shall) have nothing to write, nevertheless write (Cic., *Fam.*, xvi., 26, 2).

Nam ista vērītās etiam sī iūcunda nōn est, mihi tamen grāta est, for that truth, al-

Neque enim, sī māximē statuāe dēiectae essent, eās egō vōbīs possem iacentēs ostendere, for even if the statues were altogether scattered upon the ground, I could not show them to you, as they lay there (Cic., *Verr.*, ii., 68, 164).

Etsī nihil aliud Sullae nisi cōsulātum abstulissētis, tamen eō contentōs vōs esse oportēbat, though you had taken nothing else from Sulla than the consulship, yet you ought to be satisfied with that (Cic., *Sull.*, 32, 90).

Sed tametsī iam ita cōstituissēs, ut abesse perpetuō mālles quam ea, quae nōllēs, vidēre, tamen id cōgitāre dēbērēs, but although you had already made up your mind to stay away forever rather than see what you would rather not see, yet you ought to bear this point in mind (Cic., *Fam.*, iv., 7, 4).

Etiam sī nōbilitātum nōn sit, tamen honestum sit, quodque vērē dīcimus, etiam sī āu nūllō laudētur, nātūrā esse laudābile, even though it should not be stamped as noble, yet it would be worthy of respect and a thing which we truly call praiseworthy in its

though it is unpleasant, I am yet glad to hear (Cic., *Att.*, iii., 24, 2). nature, even though no one should praise it (Cic., *Off.*, i., 4, 14).

479. Concessive clauses are also introduced by *licet*, *ut*, *quamvis*, and *quamquam*. Of these: —

480. (1.) Clauses with *licet* or *ut* take the subjunctive.

(2.) Clauses with *quamquam* take the indicative in classical Latin, the subjunctive later, while clauses with *quamvis* take the subjunctive in classical Latin and the indicative later.* Thus: —

INDICATIVE.

Rōmānī, quamquam itinere et proeliō fessī erant, tamen Metellō instructī intētiq̄ue obviam prōcēdunt, although the Romans were weary with the march and the battle, yet they went forth against Metellus drawn up in good order and on the alert (Sall., *Iug.*, 53, 5).

Quamquam in utrōque vestrum summum esse ingenium studiumque perspexī, tamen haec, quae sunt in specie posita, in tē, Sulpici, divīna sunt, although I have seen in both of you very great ability and zeal, yet in this matter of beauty of style you, Sulpicius, are divine (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 29, 131).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sed omnia licet concurrant, Idūs Mārtiae cōsōlantur, but though all [horrors] should unite against me, yet the 15th of March is a consolation (Cic., *Att.*, xiv., 4, 2).

Ut enim nēmīnem alium nisi T. Patinam familiārisimum suum rogāssēt, scīre potuit, for even though he had asked no one but his dear friend Titus Patina, he might have known (Cic., *Mil.*, 17, 46).

Quamquam enim sint† in quibusdam malīs, tamen hōc nōmen beātī longē et latē patet, for though they may be in some misfortune, yet this word "happy" is one of far-

* In very late Latin *licet* also is found with the indicative.

† In this and the few other cases in which Cicero uses the subjunctive in a *quamquam* clause, the subjunctive is *potential*, and not influenced by the concessive character of the sentence. (Cf. the translation.)

Quamvis est enim omnis hyperbolē ūltrā finem, nōn tamen esse debet ūltrā modum, for although all hyperbole means overstepping the line, yet it should not go beyond all bounds (Quint., viii., 6, 73). *reaching import* (Cic., *Tusc.*, v., 30, 85). *Quamvis sis molestus, nunquam tē esse confitebor malum*, for although you are annoying, I will never admit that you are bad (Cic., *Tusc.*, ii., 25, 61).

NOTE. The concessive clauses with *quamvis* and *ut* are of hortatory origin, *quamvis* meaning "however much," and *ut*, "how;" *licet* is really an impersonal verb, and the subjunctive was at first a *coördinate* potential subjunctive (cf. 491); *quamquam* introduces regularly something granted to be a fact, and therefore naturally has the indicative.

a. *Quamvis*, in its earlier meanings "however," "as much as you please," etc., is used to modify some particular adjective or adverb, and then has no effect upon the mood of the verb. Thus: —

Quasi verō mihi difficile sit, quamvis multōs nōminatim proferre, just as if it would be hard for me to mention by name as many as you please (Cic., *Rosc. Am.*, 16, 47); *doctorum est ista consuetūdō eaque Graecōrum, ut eis pōnātur dē quō disputent quamvis subitō*, it is the professional philosophers, and that, too, Greek ones, who have that habit of letting a subject be proposed to them for discussion however suddenly (Cic., *Am.*, 5, 17).

So, *quamvis licet insectemur Stōicōs metuō nē solī philosophi sint*, for though we attack the Stoics as much as you please, I fear they are the only real philosophers (Cic., *Tusc.*, iv., 24, 53).

b. *Quamquam* and *etsi*, often, *tametsi*, rarely, are used with independent sentences to add a sort of correction to what has been said, as is done in English by "and yet." Thus: —

Quamquam quid opus est in hōc philosophārī, and yet, what need is there of philosophizing on this subject? (Cic., *Tusc.*, i., 37, 89); *hārum duārum condiciōnum nunc utram mālīs vidē; etsi cōsiliū, quod cēpī, rēctum esse et tūtum*

sciō, now see which of these two propositions you prefer ; and yet the plan which I have formed I know is sound and safe. (Ter., *Heaut.*, 327).

c. *Etsī*, *quamquam*, and *quamvis* are used rarely in classical writers, but very commonly in Tacitus and the later authors (like “although” in English), with participles, *etsī* and *quamquam* also with adjectives, without any verb. Thus : —

Quā rē omnī ratiōne esse interdū perrum pendum ; etsī aliquō acceptō detrīmentō, tamen summā exercitūs salvā locum, quem petant, capī posse, [that] therefore on all accounts they must break through by daylight, and although some loss might be experienced, yet with the main body of the army unhurt, the place they were making for could be taken (Caes., *B. C.*, i., 67) ; *lōricam induit linteam, quamquam haud dissimulāns parum adversus tot mūcrōnēs prōfutūram*, he [Galba] put on a canvas breastplate, though perfectly well aware that it would be of little use against so many sword points (Suēt., *Galba*, 19) ; *haec, mīra quamquam, fidem ex eō trahēbant*, these things, wonderful though they were, induced belief from the fact (Tac., *An.*, vi., 30) ; *mēne nōn primum cum Pompēiō, quālicumque cōsiliō suō, deinde cum bonīs esse, quamvis causā temerē institūtā*, I not be, in the first place, on Pompey’s side whatever his design, and afterwards on the right side, although they had not managed their course with discretion ? (Cic., *Att.*, ix., 6, 4).

For Concessive clauses with Relative Pronouns, see 500, 2, b.

“ “ “ “ *Cum* “ 510, 2.

“ Clauses of Proviso with *Dum*, *Modō*, etc., “ 504.

Clauses with Particles of Comparison.

481. (1.) Clauses of comparison take the indicative when the comparison is simply stated as a fact.

(2.) They take the subjunctive when the comparison is put as a *supposed case*. *Sī* is then usually added to the particle of comparison ; as, *tamquam sī, quasi, ut sī, velut sī, ac sī*. Thus : —



INDICATIVE.

Illud tē hortor, ut, tamquam poētae boni solent, sic tū in extrēmā parte mūneris tuī diligentissimus sis, this I urge upon you: just as good poets are in the habit of doing, so do you exercise especial care in the last part of your task (Cic., *Q. Fr.*, i., 1, 46).

Quasi pōma ex arboribus, crūda sī sunt, vix ēvel-luntur, sī mātūra et cocta, dēcidunt, sic vītā adulēscētibz vīs aufert, as fruit when unripe is torn with difficulty from its tree, but when it is fully ripe falls, so force is necessary to take away life from the young (Cic., *Sen.*, 19, 71).

Est ita, ut dīcitur, it is as it is said to be.

Haec sicut exposui, ita gesta sunt, these things took place as I have set forth (Cic., *Mil.*, 11, 30).

Ut sēmentem fēcēris, ita metēs, as thou sowest, so shalt thou reap (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, ii., 65, 261).

Longē alia nobis āc tū scripserās nūntiantur, the accounts told me are far other than you wrote (Cic., *Att.*, xi., 10, 2).

Pergrātum mihi fēcēris, sī quemadmodum solēs dē cēteris rēbus cum ex tē

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Vērūm hominēs corrupti superbiā ita aetūtem agunt, quasi vostrōs honōrēs contemnant; ita hōs petunt, quasi honestē vixerint, but men have become spoiled by arrogance and conduct themselves as if they scorned your offices, but sue for them as if they lived respectable lives (Sall., *Iug.*, 85, 19).

Quī quasi sua rēs aut honōs agātur, ita diligenter Sex. Naevī studiō et cupiditātī mōrem gerunt, who devote themselves to accomplishing the zealous and eager desires of Sextus Naevius with as much energy as if their own interests or honors were at stake (Cic., *Quīnc.*, 2, 9).

Tantus patrēs metus dē summā rērum cēpit, velut sī iam ad portās hostis esset, as great a fear for the government seized upon the senators as if the enemy were already at the gates (Līv., xxi., 16, 2).

At accūsāt C. Cornēli fīlius, et id aequē valēre dēbet, āc sī pater indicāret, but the son of Gaius Cornelius is the accuser, and that ought to have as much weight as if the father were giving testimony (Cic., *Sull.*, 18, 51).

Tamquam clausa sit

quaeritur, sic de amicitia disputaris quid sentias, I shall be very much obliged to you if you tell us what you think about friendship, in the same way you are wont to discuss other topics, when you are asked about them (Cic., *Am.*, iv., 16).

Asia, sic nihil perfertur ad nos, we fail to get any news as completely as if Asia were blockaded (Cic., *Fam.*, xii., 9).

Ut si bono animo fecissent laudavit consilium eorum, he [Agesilaus] praised their scheme, just as if they had acted with good intentions (Nep., *Agēs.*, 6, 2).

a. In subjunctive clauses of comparison, if the supposed comparison applies to the present (or future), the primary tenses are used; if to the past, the secondary tenses. The perfect and pluperfect indicate, of course, *completed* action. Occasionally, however, the imperfect is used referring to present time, when the comparison involves something impossible or very unnatural, as in the fourth example above.

For Comparative Clauses with *Quam* = "than," see 498, and 516, *e.*

Clauses of Purpose (Final Clauses).

482. The SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE is introduced:—

(1.) By the conjunctions *ut*, that, and *nē*, that not, lest (occasionally *ut nē*). To connect two clauses of purpose *nēve* (*neu*) is used for "and not" as well as "or not" "nor." Thus:—

Esse oportet ut vivās; nōn vivere ut edās, you must eat in order to live, not live in order to eat (Cornif., *Heren.*, iv., 28, 39); *nē qua eius adventus procul significatio fiat*, that no indication of his arrival may be made at a distance (Caes., *B. G.*, vi., 29); *excitanda est diligentia, ut nē quid neglegenter agāmus*, we must rouse up our energy so as to do nothing carelessly; *ut vetera exempla relinquam, nēve eorum aliquem quī vivunt nōminem*, to leave examples from old times and yet not name any of the living (Cic., *Sest.*, 47, 101).

(2.) By a relative pronoun or adverb; as, *quī, unde*, etc. Thus:—

Ea quī conficeret Gaium Trebonium legatum relinquit,

he leaves his lieutenant Gaius Trebonius to attend to these things (Caes., *B. G.*, vii., 11); *scrībēbat tamen ōrātiōnēs quās alīī dīcerent*, yet he used to write speeches for others to deliver (Cic., *Brūt.*, 56, 206); *hominī nātūra ratiōnem dedit, quā regerentur animī adpetītūs*, to man Nature has given reason, to govern the desires of the mind (cf. Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 12, 34); *quasi iam dīvīnārem, id quod accidit, illō exstīnctō, fore unde dīscerem nēmīnem*, as if I already had a presentiment of what proved to be the case, that after his death there would be nobody from whom I could learn (for me to learn from) (Cic., *Sen.*, 4, 12); *habēbam quō cōnfugerem*, I had a refuge to flee to (Cic., *Fam.*, iv., 6, 2); *locum, ubī cōnsistat reperīre nōn poterit*, he will not be able to find a place in which to make a stand (Cic., *Quīnc.*, 1, 5).

NOTE. *Ut* represents the purpose in a general way as the purpose of the action indicated by the main verb; the relative connects the purpose particularly with some word in the main clause. Thus:—

Clāvem cēpit ut iānuam reclūderet, he took the key to open the door.

Clāvem cēpit quā iānuam reclūderet, he took the key to open the door with.

(3.) Especially by *quō* (in the sense of *ut eō*), if the purpose clause contains a comparative.* Thus:—

Inrītant ad pūgnandum, quō fīunt ācriōrēs, they goad them on to battle, to make them the fiercer (Varr.); *libertāte ūsus est, quō impūnius dicāx esset*, he used his freedom to bluster the more safely (Cic., *Quīnc.*, 3, 11).

a. When the clause upon which the purpose clause depends stands first, it often contains some word or phrase like *ideō*, *idcirco*, *eō cōnsiliō*, *hōc animō*, to prepare the way for the purpose clause; as:—

Lēgibus dēnique idcirco omnēs servīmus, ut liberī esse possīmus, to the laws, in short, we are all slaves, but only on this account, namely, to secure the possibility of freedom (Cic., *Clu.*, 53, 146); *eō ad tē animō vēnimus, ut dē rē publicū*

* *Quō* is very rarely used if there is no comparative, and, on the other hand, *ut* is occasionally used where there is a comparative.

esset silentium, with this purpose we have come to you, that we might cease thinking and talking about the government (Cic., *Brūt.*, 3, 11).

b. When the purpose belongs to the present (or future) the present subjunctive is used; when it belongs to the past, the imperfect is used. The perfect and pluperfect are in the nature of the case uncommon, representing a purpose as *completed* in the present or past respectively.

c. But the clause of purpose sometimes depends upon an idea of saying implied, instead of upon the main verb of the sentence expressed. Thus: —

Sed ut hęc, quī intervēnit, mē intuēns, nē ignōret, quae rēs agātur, dē nātūrā agēbāmus deōrum, but that our friend who has just come in — and he glanced at me — may not be in the dark as to the subject of our discussion, we were discussing the divine nature (Cic., *N. D.*, i., 7, 17). *Nē ignōret* indicates the purpose of making the remark, not the purpose of the discussion.

d. Of similar character is the use of *nēdum* introducing a subjunctive clause where we say “not to mention,” “still less,” etc. Thus: —

Satrapa sī siet amātor numquam sufferre eius sūmptūs queat, nēdum tū possīs, if her lover were a governor he could never stand her extravagance, still less can you (Ter., *Heaut.*, 454).

NOTE. *Ut*, as well as *quī*, *ubi*, etc., is in origin a relative, so that all these clauses of purpose are really of the same nature. Their development may be illustrated thus: —

He sends a boy; *he will* or *would* say, (or) *let him* say.

He sends a boy *who will* say, (or) *who is to* say.

He sends a boy, *that he may* say, (or) *to* say.

The English exhibits the coördinate construction beside the subordinate in the expressions “come and see me,” “come to see me.”

For other constructions of purpose, see as follows: —

Gerunds and Gerundives: 551, and 552, 2.

Future Participle (rare): 545, a.

Supine (with verbs of motion): 554, 2.

(Poetical) Infinitive: 536.

Clauses of Result (Consecutive Clauses).

483. The SUBJUNCTIVE OF RESULT is introduced : —

(1.) By *ut*, that, *ut nōn*, that not. Thus : —

Nōn is es, Catilīna, ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine revocārit, you are not such a person, Catiline, that shame has ever kept you from a base deed (cf. Cic., *Cat.*, i., 9, 22) ; *multīs gravibusque vulneribus cōfectus, ut iam sē sūstinēre nōn posset*, worn out with many serious wounds, so that now he could no longer hold himself up (Caes., *B. G.*, ii., 25).

(2.) By a relative pronoun or adverb, *quī*, etc. Thus : —

Nēmō est tam senex, quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, no one is so old that he does not think he can live a year (Cic., *Sen.*, 7, 24) ; *quis tam fuit illō tempore ferreus, quī nōn illōrum aetate, nōbilitate, miseriā commovērētur*, who was so iron-hearted then, that he was not influenced by their age, their high birth, and their pitiable condition ? (Cic., *Verr.*, v., 46, 121).

(3.) Especially by *quīn* (equivalent to the nominatives *quī*, *quae*, *quod*, etc., with *nōn*), when the main clause contains or implies a negative. Thus : —

Nūllast tam facilis rēs, quīn difficilis siet, quom invītus faciās, nothing is so easy that it is not hard when you do it against your will (Ter., *Heaut.*, 805) ; *numquam accēdō, quīn abs tē abeam doctior*, I never come to you without going away richer in knowledge.

a. The clause of result is generally foreshadowed in the main clause by some word like *ita*, *sic*, *tam*, *is*, *tālis*, *tantus*, *adeō*. (Cf. the examples.)

b. When clauses which seem to be result clauses have *nē* or *ut nē*, it is because the thing said is looked at rather as an intended effect (purpose) than as a result (accomplished effect). Thus : —

Utrōque tempore ita mē gessī nē tibi pudōrī, nē rēgnō tuō, nē genti Macedonum essem, on both occasions I so conducted

myself as not to bring discredit upon you or your kingdom, or upon the Macedonians as a people [*i. e.*, it was my aim not to, etc.] (Līv., xl., 15, 6).

NOTE. As in the case of purpose clauses, the relative clause of result is an earlier development than the *ut* clause. This development began as an independent apodosis with an implied protasis in some such fashion as this: —

This is a very simple thing: you would easily see it.

This thing is so simple: it is one which you would easily see.

This thing is so simple that you would easily see it.

This thing is so simple that it causes no trouble.*

Starting thus with the notion of indeterminate futurity inherent in the subjunctive, the result clause tends to pass from the *supposed* case to an *actual* case. In this process the subjunctive loses more and more of its modality, and gains correspondingly in definiteness of tense, so that: —

c. In pure result clauses, unlike the other dependent clauses thus far treated, the tenses of the subjunctive seem to acquire the same distinctness of temporal quality which the indicative has. This is especially true of the perfect subjunctive, as can be seen in examples like the following: —

Expulsus rēgnō tandem aliquandō, Mithridātēs tantum tamen cōsiliō atque auctōritāte valuit ut sē rēge Armeniōrum adiūctō novīs opibus cōpiisque renovārit, driven at last out of his kingdom, Mithridates was still so effective with his schemes and influence that he renewed his means and troops by winning the king of the Armenians as an ally (Cic., *Mūr.*, 15, 33).

NOTE 1. How far the Romans were conscious of a substitution of tense force for mood force in such subjunctives it is perhaps impossible to tell. It may be that the perfect, through denoting *completed* action, differs in clauses of result from the imperfect in the same way that the English expressions "so that he did" and "so as to do" differ. Compare with the example just given the following from the same oration: —

Quī rēx, sibi aliquot annīs sūmptis ad cōfirmandās ratiōnēs et cōpiās belli, tantum spē cōnātūque valuit, ut sē Oceanum cum Pontō coniūctūrum putāret, and this king, having taken several years to mature his plans

* Cf. J. B. Greenough's essay on *The Latin Subjunctive*, pp. 17 ff., and W. G. Hale's "Sequence of Tenses in Latin," *American Journal of Philology*, viii., 1, pp. 49 ff.

and strengthen his forces, found himself so powerful, in his hopes and ambitions, as to fancy that he was going to spread his sway from the Black Sea to the ocean (Cic., *Mūr.*, 15, 32).

In using the imperfect, the writer seems to be thinking more of the fact (expressed by the main verb) which produces the result, while the perfect calls attention rather to the result itself.

NOTE 2. This difference between the perfect and the imperfect subjunctive can perhaps be more plainly seen by comparing a clause of result with a clause of purpose. Thus: —

RESULT. *Inventus est scriba quidam qui cornicum oculos cōfixerit*, there was found a certain clerk who bearded the lion (lit., pierced the eyes of the crows) (Cic., *Mūr.*, 11, 25).

PURPOSE. *Reperiti sunt duo equitēs Rōmānī qui tē istā cūrā liberārent*, there were found two Roman knights to free you from that anxiety (Cic., *Cat.*, i., 4, 9).

The purpose is something looked forward to in the *indefinite* future, and therefore has no reference to a particular *time* other than the time of the main verb; the result is something which has occurred at a *definite* past time, and therefore, besides its reference to its main verb, involves, like the indicative, a reference also to the time the thing is said.*

Substantive Clauses with Ut, Nē, Quin, Quōminus.

484. After the analogy of final and consecutive clauses, subjunctive clauses introduced by *ut* (and *ut nōn*), *nē* (*nēve* or *neu*, and *ut nē*), *quīn*, and *quōminus*, were used as the subject or object of a variety of verbs, or in apposition to some word governed by them.

485. Clauses analogous to final clauses are thus used depending upon several classes of verbs which denote an action *directed to the future*. Such clauses are called SUBTANTIVE or OBJECT CLAUSES OF PURPOSE. Thus: —

486. With verbs meaning to WISH, ASK, BESEECH, DEMAND, DETERMINE, DECREE, ALLOW, etc.; as: —

Phaëthōn optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, Phaëtho wanted to be taken up into his father's chariot (Cic., *Off.*,

* This difference exists, of course, in the nature of the case itself, and not in the form of the expression. In English we mark the difference by the mood of the verb; the Romans failed to do so, but it does not follow that they did not feel the difference.

iii., 25, 94) ; *Verrēs rogat et ōrat Dolābellam, ut ad Nerōnem proficiscātur*, Verres asks and begs Dolabella to visit Nero (Cic., *Verr.*, i., 29, 72) ; *mīlitēs pōscunt pūgnam, pōstulant, ut sīgnum darētur*, the soldiers call for battle, and demand that the signal be given (Līv., ii., 45, 6) ; *Gallī statuunt, ut decem mīlia hominum in oppidum mīttantur*, the Gauls determine that ten thousand men be sent into the town (Caes., *B. G.*, vii., 21) ; *dēcrēvit senātus, ut L. Opīmius vidēret, nē quid rēs pūblica dētrīmentī caperet*, the senate decreed that Lucius Opimius should see to it that the state suffered no harm (Cic., *Cat.*, i., 2, 4) ; *cōsulī permīssum est, ut duās legiōnēs scrīberet novās*, the consul was authorized to enroll two new légions (Līv., xxxv., 20, 4).

487. With verbs meaning to PROPOSE, ADVISE, WARN, URGE, PERSUADE, DIRECT, COMMAND, COMPEL, etc. ; as : —

[*Nescīs*] *tē autem ipsum ad populum tulisse, ut quīntus praetereā diēs Caesarī tribuerētur*, and have you forgotten that you yourself proposed to the people that a fifth day besides should be assigned to Caesar ? (Cic., *Phil.*, ii., 43, 110) ; *postea mē, ut sibi essem lēgātus, nōn solum suāsīt, vērū etiam rogāvit*, afterwards he not only advised, but even requested me to be his lieutenant (Cic., *Prōv. Cōns.*, 17, 42) ; *monet, ut in reliquum tempus omnēs sūspiciōnēs vītēt*, he warns him, for the future, to avoid all suspicious conduct (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 20) ; *Canīnius noster mē tuīs verbīs admonuit, ut scrīberem ad tē*, our friend Caninius has suggested to me on your behalf that I write to you (Cic., *Fam.*, ix., 6, 1) ; *Caesar mīlitēs cohortātus est, utī suae prīstinae virtūtis memoriā retinērent neu perturbārentur animō*, Caesar urged the soldiers to hold fast to the remembrance of their old-time valor, and not to be troubled in their minds ; *huic māgnīs praemiīs pollicitātiōnibusque persuādet, utī ad hostēs trānseat*, he persuades this man by promise of great rewards to cross over to the enemy's lines (Caes., *B. G.*, iii., 18) ; *servīs imperat, ut sē ipsum neglegant, filiā dēfendant*, he orders his slaves not to pay any attention to him, but to protect his daughter

(Cic., *Verr.*, i., 26, 67); *tenēmus enim memoriā Q. Catulum esse coāctum, ut vitā sē ipse prīvāret*, for we remember that Quintus Catulus was forced to take his own life (Cic., *dē Or.*, iii., 3, 9).

488. Substantive clauses of purpose are further used with verbs meaning to ATTEND TO, LOOK OUT FOR, STRIVE, TRY, etc.; as:—

Cūrā ut valeās, see that you keep well (Cic., *Fam.*, vii., 5, 3); *videāmus, ut, quidquid acciderit, fortiter ferāmus*, let us see to it that we bear bravely whatever happens; *quī stadium currit, ēnīti dēbet, ut vincat*, he who runs a race ought to try his best to win (Cic., *Off.*, iii., 10, 42).

489. Many of these verbs are also used with an infinitive clause. Thus:—

(1.) *Volō, nōlō, mālō, cupiō, studeō*, always; *statuō, cōstituō, dēcernō*, generally, take an infinitive (not a subjunctive clause) when there is no change of subject. Thus:—

Sī accelerāre volent, ad vesperam cōsequentur, if they are willing to hurry they will overtake him by evening (Cic., *Cat.*, ii., 4, 6); *simul illōrum calamitūtem commemorandō augēre nōlō*, at the same time I do not wish to increase the misfortune of these people by dwelling upon it (Cic., *Ver. Ac.*, i., 14); *incommoda sua nostrīs committere lēgibus et iūdicīs quam dolōrī suō permittere māluerunt*, they preferred to leave their injuries to the protection of our laws and courts rather than base action upon their own distress (Cic., *Verr.*, i., 32, 82); *statuērunt id sēcum in Syriam reportāre*, they determined to take that back with them to Syria (Cic., *Verr.*, iv., 28, 64).

(2.) *Volō, nōlō, mālō, cupiō*, have often also the infinitive even when the subject changes. Thus:—

An omnīs tū istōs vincere volebās, quī nunc tū ut vincās tantō opere labōrant, or did you want to have all these gentlemen win who are now struggling so hard to have you win? (Cic., *Quīnct.*, 21, 69); *tū Syrācūsānōs diem festum Mārcellis impertire nōluistī*, you were unwilling to have the people of Syracuse celebrate a holiday in honor of the Marcelli

(Cic., *Verr.*, ii., 21, 51) ; *rem tālem per aliōs citius quam per sē tardius cōfici mālēbat*, he preferred to have a matter of this kind carried out quickly by others rather than slowly by himself (Cic., *Sēst.*, 32, 70).

(3.) *Sinō* always (except in the imperative), and *pator* generally, take the infinitive.

(4.) *Iubeō* and *vetō* regularly take the infinitive ; so also *imperō* and *pōstulō* when the verb dependent upon them is passive or deponent ; as : —

Caesar quīnque cohortēs dē mediā nocte proficisci imperat, Caesar orders five cohorts to set out about midnight.

490. Several of these verbs take the subjunctive if they imply a COMMAND or REQUEST, the infinitive if they merely introduce a STATEMENT. Thus : —

(1.) *Persuādēō*, *moneō*, *cōncēdō*, etc., with the subjunctive, mean “persuade, warn, allow one *to do* a thing ;” with the infinitive, “persuade, warn, grant one that a thing *is so and so*.”

(2.) Words like *dīcere*, *scrībere*, *respondēre*, *nūntiāre*, with the subjunctive, mean “tell, write, etc., one *to do so and so* ;” as : —

Dīcam tuīs, ut librum meum dēscrībant ad tēque mītant, I will tell your people to make a copy of my book, and send it to you (Cic., *Fam.*, xii., 17, 2).

491. Sometimes the subjunctive has no introductory *ut*. Thus : —

Vīsne igitur hōc prīmum videāmus, do you wish then that we should look at this point first ? *mālō tē sapiēns hostis metuāt, quam stultī cīvēs laudent*, I would rather have you feared by a wise enemy than praised by foolish fellow-countrymen ; *ā tē petō, mē absentem dēfendās*, I beg of you to defend me in my absence ; *Caesar Commiō imperat quās possit adeat civitātēs*, Caesar orders Commius to visit such states as he can ; *hanc sī quī partem putābit esse orātīōnis, sequātur licēbit*, if any one thinks this is a part of oratory, he may follow [Hermagoras] (Cic., *Inven.*, i., 51, 97).

So with *velim, vellem, mālim*, etc., used as a circumlocution to express a wish. (See 473, c.)

NOTE. It is incorrect to say that in these cases an *ut* is omitted. They are survivals of the old coördinate construction before the *ut* construction was developed, and the apparently dependent subjunctive is really an independent hortatory or potential subjunctive.

492. After verbs and expressions which denote FEAR, ANXIETY, etc., the subjunctive with *nē* expresses a fear that something *will* or *may* happen; with *nē nōn* (or *ut*), a fear that something will or may *not* happen (see note below). Thus:—

Vereor, nē, dum minuere velim labōrem, augeam, I am afraid that, while wishing to lessen the labor, I shall increase it (Cic., *Lēg.*, i., 4, 12); *vīdit perīculum esse, nē exūtum impedimentis exercitum nēquiquam incolumem trādūxisset*, he saw there was danger of his having taken the army safely across to no purpose if stripped of its baggage (Līv., ix., 18); *nōn quō verear, nē tua virtūs opīniōnī hominum nōn respondeat*, not that I am afraid that your merits will not fulfill men's expectations (Cic., *Fam.*, ii., 5, 2); *verēmur, nē forte nōn aliōrum utilitatibus sed propriae laudī servisse videāmur*, I am afraid that I may, perhaps, seem to have been working not for the interests of others, but for my own glory; *rem frūmentāriam, ut satis commodē supportārī posset, timēre [sē] dīcēbant*, they said they were afraid that provisions could not be conveyed comfortably and conveniently (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 39).

a. *Ut*, rather than *nē nōn*, is used by the comic poets, especially with *timeō, metuō*, and *paveō*, and by Pacuvius and Terence with *vereor*. Cicero also prefers *ut* after *vereor* and *timeō*, and Caesar uses it after *timeō*, as in the last example. *Nē nōn* is rare in the comic writers, and disappears wholly after Cicero's time.

b. *Vereor*, and less commonly other verbs of fearing, when they mean "afraid to do," take an infinitive; as:—

Ah! vereor cōram in ōs tē laudāre amplius, oh, I am

afraid to praise you any more thus to your face (Ter., *Ad.*, 269).

c. The verb of fearing or caution is sometimes omitted in lively address or conversation, the subjunctive clause thus standing alone; as:—

Nē nimium modō . . . tuos iste animus aequos subvortat, only [take care] lest that easy-going disposition of yours upset us too completely (Ter., *Ad.*, 835).

NOTE. Clauses of fearing are really developments from the hortatory or the optative use of the subjunctive, and this origin explains the apparent contradiction in the use of *ut* to express "that not." Thus:—

metuō; nē id fiat! = *metuō nē id fiat*.

I am afraid; { let } it not happen " I am afraid it will happen.
 { may }

metuō; ne id nōn fiat! = *metuō nē id nōn fiat*.

metuo; ut id fiat! " *metuō ut id fiat*.

I am afraid; { let } { it not fail to happen } " I am afraid it will not
 { may } { it happen } happen.

493. Substantive clauses of purpose often passing into result are used:—

(1.) With *nē* (*ut nē*) or without a particle, after words meaning to guard against or forbid. Thus:—

Cavendum est, nē extrā modum prōdeās, you must guard against overstepping the limit (Cic., *Off.*, i., 39, 140); *neque enim est interdictum aut ā rērum nātūrā aut ā lēge aliquā atque mōre, ut singulīs hominibus nē amplius quam singulās artēs nōsse liceat*, for neither by the constitution of the universe, nor by any statute or convention, is it forbidden that one man shall know more than one subject (Cic., *dē Or.*, i., 50, 215).

a. *Cavēre* means properly "look out for," "provide for." Therefore with *nē* it means "to guard against;" and with *ut* "to take care that." *Cavē* without a particle is used as a circumlocution for forbidding. Thus:—

Cavē fēstīnēs, do not hasten; *cavē faxis*, don't do it.

(2.) With *nē* or *quōminus* (sometimes also *quīn*, if the

main clause contains or implies a negative), after verbs meaning to OPPOSE, REFUSE, HINDER, etc. Thus : —

Plūra nē scribam, dolōre impediōr, I am prevented by grief from writing more ; *Atticus, nē quā sibi statua pōneretur, restitit*, Atticus opposed having a statue set up to him anywhere ; *eīdem dē causīs . . . quōminus dīmīcūre vellet, movēbātur*, by the same reasons he was influenced against wishing to fight (Caes., *B. C.*, i., 82) ; *Epaminōndās nōn recūsāvit quōminus lēgis poenam subīret*, Epaminondas did not refuse to suffer the penalty of the law (Nep., *Epam.*, viii., 2) ; *Rēgulus sententiam nē dīceret recūsāvit*, Regulus refused to give an opinion (Cic., *Off.*, iii., 27, 100) ; *nōn possumus, quīn aliī ā nobīs dissentiant recūsāre*, we cannot object to others disagreeing with us (Cic., *Acad.*, ii., 3, 7).

a. *Recūsāre* in affirmative clauses always takes *nē* after it ; in negative clauses it may be followed by *quīn*, *quōminus*, or the infinitive.

Illud recūsāvit, nē id ā sē fierī pōstulārent, quod adversus iūs hospitī esset, he would not let them demand that a thing should be done by him which was against the law of hospitality (Nep., xxiii., 12, 3) ; *nōn recūsābō, quōminus omnēs mea legant*, I will not object to everybody reading my words (Cic., *Fin.*, i., 3, 7) ; *frāter meus ad omnia perīcula prīnceps esse nōn recūsābat*, my brother has no reluctance to taking the lead in facing all dangers.

b. *Impedīre* and *dēterrēre* sometimes, and *prohibēre* more commonly, take the infinitive. Thus : —

Caesar īgnēs in castrīs fierī prohibuit, Caesar forbade fires being made in the camp (Caes., *B. C.*, iii., 30, 5) ; *quid est, quod mē impediāt ea, quae mihī probābilia videantur sequī*, what is there to hinder me from adopting the views which seem to me probable ? (Cic., *Off.*, ii. 2, 8).

494. Substantive clauses after the analogy of CLAUSES OF RESULT are chiefly used : —

a. With impersonal verbs like *fit*, *accidit*, *contingit*, *evenit*,

est, as a circumlocution to express the occurrence or existence of something. Thus:—

Accidit ut unā nocte omnes hermae Athenis dēicerentur, it came to pass that in one night all the “hermae” * at Athens were thrown down; *persaepe evenit, ut utilitās cum honestāte certet*, it is often the case that what is expedient is at variance with what is right (Cic., *Part. Ōr.*, 25, 89); *quandō fuit ut quod licet nōn liceret*, when was it true that the lawful was not lawful?

495. After certain kinds of verbs the substantive clause has a *final* or a *consecutive* character, according as the given case is regarded as something *intended* or as something *accomplished* or in process of accomplishment. Thus:—

496. With verbs meaning to CAUSE, ACCOMPLISH, OBTAIN, etc.; as:—

Hamilcar effecit ut imperator in Hispāniam mitteretur, Hamilcar brought it about that he should be sent into Spain as commander (0000,00,00). (FINAL.)

Impetrabis a Caesare, ut tibi abesse liceat, you will get from Caesar permission to be away (Cic., *Att.*, ix., 2, A 1). (CONSECUTIVE.)

Commeātus ab Rēmīs reliquisque civitatibus ut sine periculō ad eum portārī possent, efficiēbat, [this thing] made it possible for supplies to be brought to him from the Remi and the other states without danger (Caes., *B. G.*, ii., 5). (FINAL.)

497. So with impersonal verbs like *efficitur*, *sequitur*, † *restat*, *relinquitur*, and expressions like *proximum est*, *mōs est*, *iūs est*. Thus:—

Restat, ut de imperatore ad id bellum deligendō . . . dicendum esse videatur, it seems necessary for me in conclusion to

* That is, images of Hermes with only the upper half of the body delineated, the lower half being simply squared off into a column of support.

† *Efficitur* and *sequitur* may also take an infinitive; as: *ex quō illud efficitur, quī benè cēnent, omnes libenter cēnāre*, thence follows that all who dine well enjoy dining.

speak about the choice of a commander for this war (Cic., *Lēg. Mān.*, 10, 27). (CONSECUTIVE.)

Proximum est, ut doceam deōrum prōvidentiā mundum administrārī, the next thing is for me to show that the universe is managed by divine providence (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 29, 73). (FINAL.)

Ariovistus respondit iūs ēsse bellī, ut quī vīcissent eīs quōs vīcissent quemadmodum vellent imperārent, Ariovistus answered that it was the right of war for the conqueror to lay such commands upon the vanquished as he wishes (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 36). (FINAL.)

498. So after comparatives with *quam*, with or without *ut*, the subjunctive has sometimes a *final*, sometimes a *consecutive*, nature. Thus : —

Isocratēs mūiōre mihī ingeniō vidētur esse quam ut cum Lysiā comparētur, Isocrates seems to me to have too great ability to be compared with Lysias. (FINAL.)

Quī perpessus est omnia potius quam cōsciōs dēlendae tyrannidis indicāret, who suffered everything rather than disclose the accomplices of the plot to overthrow the tyranny (Cic., *Tūsc.*, ii., 22, 52). (CONSECUTIVE.)

499. To the foregoing clauses may be added the clauses with *quīn*, depending on a clause which contains or implies negation. Thus : —

Nēmō fuit mīlitum quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers but was wounded. (CONSECUTIVE.)

Quis est, quīn cernat, quanta vīs sit in sēnsibus, who does not see how much power there is in the senses? (CONSECUTIVE.)

Agrē sunt retentī mīlitēs quīn oppidum irrumperent, the soldiers were with difficulty restrained from bursting into the town (Caes., *B. C.*, ii., 13). (CONSECUTIVE.)

Cicerō nihil praetermīsīt, quīn Pompēium ā Caesaris cōiūctiōne āvocāret, Cicero neglected no means of trying to get Pompey away from alliance with Caesar. (FINAL.)

NOTE. It will be seen that in the first two examples *quīn* retains more of its original force as a relative, and in the last two has become more thoroughly a conjunction.

a. Clauses with *quīn* are especially common after *nōn possum, facere nōn possum, nōn dubitō, nōn dubium est*, etc. Thus : —

Facere nōn possum quīn cottidiē ad tē mittam litterās, I cannot help sending you a letter every day. (FINAL.)

Quis dubitet, quīn in virtūte divitiae sint, who can doubt that there are riches in virtue? (CONSECUTIVE.)

Nōn vidēbātur esse dubium, quīn Caesar ventūrus esset, there seemed to be no doubt that Caesar would come. (CONSECUTIVE.)

b. In the meaning "I do not hesitate to do," *nōn dubitō* may also take an infinitive in classical Latin, though rarely after the forms of expression *nōn est dubitandum*, and *nōlī dubitāre*. Thus : —

Prō patriā quis bonus dubitet mortem oppetere, what good man would hesitate to meet death for his country? *nōlite dubitāre quīn Pompēiō ūnī crēdātis omnia*, do not be reluctant to trust everything to Pompey alone.

NOTE. *Nepos*, *Livy*, and the later writers also use the infinitive sometimes after *nōn dubitō* in the meaning "I do not doubt that."

c. *Tantum abest* takes after it two clauses with *ut*, one a pure result clause, the other a substantive clause. Thus : —

Tantum abest ut scrībī contrā nōs nōlīmus, ut id etiam māximē optēmus, so far am I from being unwilling to have men write against me, that that is what I particularly desire (*Cic., Tūsc., ii., 2, 4*).

d. When clauses introduced by *ut, quīn*, etc., contain the apodosis of a past condition contrary to fact, and depend on a secondary tense, the circumlocution *factūrus* (etc.) *fuerit* is generally used instead of a pluperfect subjunctive. Thus : —

Adeō inopiā est coāctus Hannibal, ut, nisi cum fugae speciē abeundum timuisset, Galliam repetitūrus fuerit, Hannibal was driven by want to such a pass that if he had not been afraid of seeming to run away if he withdrew, he would have gone back to Gaul (*Liv., xxii., 32, 3*).

e. Sometimes the perfect subjunctive of a word like *posse, debēre*, etc., or a gerundive, is used in the same way. Thus : —

Haud dubium fuit quīn, nisi ea mora intervēnisset, castra eō diē capī potuerint, there was no doubt that, if this delay had not occurred, the camp could have been taken on that day; *adeō aequīs vīribus gesta rēs est, ut, sī adfuissent Etrūscī, accipienda clādēs fuerit*, the engagement took place with forces so nearly equal that if the Etruscans had been there a disaster must have befallen us.

Cf. 517, below.

NOTE. The above treatment of subjunctive substantive clauses is intended to classify as conveniently as may be the kinds of verbs after which such clauses are most common. Various other verbs sometimes express ideas to which the same sort of notion may be attached, and can then of course take such a substantive clause. Thus:—

Ad Appi Claudī senectūtem accēdēbat etiam ut caecus esset, to the old age of Appius Claudius was added blindness also (Cic., *Sen.*, 6, 16); *quam palmam utinam dī immortālēs, Scipiō, tibi reservent, ut avi reliquiās perseguāre*, this glory of finishing your grandfather's work I pray that the immortal gods may keep for you, Scipio (Cic., *Sen.*, 6, 19).

For other kinds of substantive clauses, see 540, and as follows:—

Clauses with *Quod*, 540, 4.

Infinitive Clauses, 515 ff., and 533 ff.

Indirect Questions, 518.

Relative Clauses (other than those of Purpose or Result).

500. (1.) Relative clauses take the INDICATIVE when they state (or deny) a FACT in regard to the antecedent. Such clauses may also *imply* a cause, result, concession, etc., or be equivalent to a condition, but the *fact* is always the prominent thing.

(2.) Relative clauses take the SUBJUNCTIVE when they indicate a QUALITY or CHARACTERISTIC of the antecedent conceived (*a*) as making the statement of the main clause applicable; (*b*) as a cause or hindrance of that statement; (*c*) as a special restriction or a condition of its application; (*d*) as producing a given result.

NOTE. This use of the subjunctive is often called the SUBJUNCTIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC, especially when a *result* is involved in it (class *d*). The antecedent is frequently a word like *is*, *tālis*, *tantus*, *nēmō*.

501. The following examples will make these uses and distinctions clearer.

INDICATIVE.

Virtūs est ūna altissimīs dēfīxa rādīcibus, quae numquam vī ūllā labefactārī potest, virtue is the one thing which, fixed upon the deepest roots, can never be shaken by any force* (Cic., *Phil.*, iv., 5, 13).

Fortūnātus illius exitus quī ea nōn vīdit, cum fierent, quae prōvīdit futūra, happy his end, for he saw not when they came the things which he foresaw were coming (Cic., *Brūt.*, 96, 329).

Cūrat Chrysogonus, ut eius bona vēneant statim, quī nōn nōrat hominem aut rem, Chrysogonus took care to have his effects at once sold, though he did not know either the man or the case (Cic., *Rōsc. Am.*, 37, 105).

Quia mē meamque rem, quod in tē ūnō fuit, dēlacrāvistī, because, so far as was in your individual power, you have ruined me and my interests (Plaut., *Capt.*, 666).

Catōnem vērō quis nostrō-

SUBJUNCTIVE.

(a.)

Innocentia est adfectiō tālis animī, quae noceat nēminī, harmlessness is that sort of mental disposition which harms nobody (Cic., *Tūs.*, iii., 8, 16).

(b.)

Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēneris, O happy youth, in that you found in Homer the herald of your valor (Cic., *Arch.*, 10, 24).

Egōmet, quī sērō ac leviter Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs Athēnīs diēs sum commorātus, I, though I had dabbled in Greek literature late and but slightly, yet tarried several days at Athens (cf. Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 18, 82).

(c.)

Epicūrus sē ūnus, quod sciam, sapientem profitērī est ausus, Epicurus alone, so far as I know, ventured to proclaim himself a wise man (Cic., *Fīn.*, ii., 3, 7).

Omnium quidem orātōrum,

* The difference between the two moods in relative clauses often cannot be shown by an English translation without greatly changing the form of the expression, but a more or less literal translation will perhaps aid the pupil in understanding the use of the moods, by clearing from his path any difficulties arising from the meanings of the Latin words.

rum orātōrum, quī quidem nunc sunt, legit? but who of our orators — of the present age at least — reads Cato? (Cic., *Brūt.*, 17, 65).

Quis ignōrat, quī modō umquam mediocriter rēs istās scīre cūrāvit, quīn tria Graecōrum genera sint? who does not know, provided he has ever taken moderate pains to understand this subject, that there are three races of Greeks? (Cic., *Flacc.*, 27, 64).

Quisquis hūc vēnerit, vāpulābit, whoever comes here will get a beating (Plaut., *Amph.*, 153).

Virtūtem quī adeptus erit, ubīcumque erit gentium, ā nobīs dīligētur, the man who acquires virtue will be esteemed by us wherever he shall be (Cic., *N. D.*, i., 44, 121).

Māximum ōrnāmentum amīcitiae tollit, quī ex eā tollit verēcundiam, he takes away the greatest adornment of friendship, who takes away respect from it (Cic., *Am.*, 22, 83).

Quicquam bonum est, quod nōn eum quī id possidet, meliōrem facit? is there any good thing which does not make him who possesses it better? (Cic., *Par.*, i., 3, 14).

quōs quidem egō cōgnōverim, acūtissimum iūdicō Q. Sertōrium, of all orators — those at least whom I know — I judge Quintus Sertorius to be the sharpest (Cic., *Brūt.*, 48, 180).

Servos est nēmō, quī modō tolerābilī condiciōne sit servitūtis, quī nōn audāciam civium perhorrēscat, there is not a slave, provided he is in an endurable state of slavery, who does not shudder at the recklessness of citizens (Cic., *Cat.*, iv., 8, 16).

Quaecumque causa vōs hūc attulisset, laetārer, I should be glad, whatever reason had brought you here (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, ii., 4, 15).

Philosophia, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, philosophy, whose obedient disciples can pass all the periods of life without annoyance (Cic., *Sen.*, 1, 2).

(d.)

Quis tam fuit illō tempore ferreus, quī nōn illōrum aetate, nobilitate, miseriā commovērētur? who was there then so hard hearted as not to be influenced by the age and rank and misfortunes of these people? (Cic., *Verr.*, v., 46, 121).

a. The subjunctive of characteristic is especially common after general expressions of existence or non-existence. When such expressions are followed by an indicative relative clause they usually contain some word like *multī*, *quīdam*, etc., which to a certain extent specializes them. (Cf. 500, note.)

INDICATIVE.

Sunt autem multī, . . . quī ēripiunt aliīs quod aliīs largiantur*, but there are many who take away from one to give to another (Cic., *Off.*, i., 14, 43).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sunt quī discēssum animī ā corpore putent esse mortem, there are [philosophers] who think that death is the departure of the soul from the body (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 9, 18).

b. The distinction between the indicative and the subjunctive is perhaps most easy to see in the clauses which are equivalent to the protases of conditions, as in the last examples under class (c) above; although here, too, the distinction is a very subtle one. *Quī adeptus erit* is the man who as a fact shall have got, *quī pāreat*, the man who in any given case should obey. With the general relatives *quisquis*, *quicumque*, etc., the indicative is much more common than the subjunctive.

c. Short relative clauses merely defining an individual, and thus practically equivalent to a descriptive adjective, are apt to take the indicative where a characteristic subjunctive might be expected.† Thus:—

Haec est, inquam, societas, in quā omnia insunt, quae putant hominēs expetenda, this is an association, I say, in which are contained all the things which men think worth aiming at (Cic., *Am.*, 22, 84).

* The fact quality still comes out sharply in these cases, and thus distinguishes them from the subjunctive clauses.

† The pupil should perhaps be cautioned that the indicative here has not any more than elsewhere the same shade of meaning which a subjunctive would have. It is only that the point of view of the writer is slightly different according to the mood he chooses in any given case.



Clauses with the Temporal Particles *Dum*, *Dōnec*, *Quoad*.

502. *Dum*, *dōnec*, *quoad*, meaning "so long as," * or "while," † almost always take the indicative in classical Latin.

NOTE. They thus simply mark the fact that one action is coextensive with, or happens during, another.

Examples are :

Ut aegrōtō, dum anima est, spēs esse dīcitur, sic egō, quoad Pompeius in Italiā fuit, spērāre nōn dēstitī, as a sick man, so long as the breath of life remains, is said to have hope, so I did not cease to hope as long as Pompey was in Italy (Cic., *Att.*, ix., 10, 3) ; *dum egō in Siciliā sum, nūlla statua dēiecta est*, while I was in Sicily not a statue was thrown down (Cic., *Verr.*, ii., 66, 161) ; *tuās epistulās cum legō, minus mihi turpis videor, sed tam diū, dum legō*, when I read your letters I fancy myself less base, but only so long as I am reading (Cic., *Att.*, ix., 6, 5) ; *dum in Asiā bellum geritur, nē in Aetoliā quidem quīētae rēs fuerant*, while the war was going on in Asia, affairs had been in unrest even in Aetolia (Liv., xxxviii., 1, 1) ; *neque enim, dum eram vōbiscum, animum meum vidēbātis*, for while I was with you, you did not see my soul (Cic., *Sen.*, 22, 79) ; *dum haec Vēis agēbantur, interim arx Rōmae Capitoliūque in ingentī periculō fuit*, in the interval while these things were going on at Vei, the Citadel and Capitol at Rome came into great danger (Liv., v., 47, 1) ; *dum Latīnae loquentur litterae, quercus huic locō nōn deerit*, as long as Latin literature shall [live and] speak, this place will not lack an oak-tree (Cic., *Lēgg.*, i., 1, 2) ; *hōc fēcī, dum licuit, intermīsī, quoad nōn licuit*, this I did as long as it was allowable, and refrained from as long as it was not allowable (Cic., *Phil.*, iii., 13, 33).

* *I. e.*, definitely marking duration of time.

† *I. e.*, either indefinitely marking duration or denoting a certain point in a given time.

Dōnec grātus eram tibi,
Persārum vīgūi rēge beātior.

More blest than Persia's king I throve,
 What time thou heldst me dear.

(Hor., *Carm.*, iii., 9, 1 ff.)

a. *Dum* has a preference for the present tense. (Cf. 468.)

b. *Dōnec* is not used in Cicero in these meanings, nor in Caesar and Sallust at all.

c. Sometimes a causal notion is implied in the clause with *dum*. Thus: —

Ita dum pauca muncipia retinēre vult, fortūnās omnēs perdidit, thus, in consequence of wishing to hold on to a few slaves, she lost all her property (Cic., *Caec.*, 17, 56); *in hās clādīs incidimus, dum metuī quam cārī esse et diligī mālūimus*, these are the disasters we have fallen into in consequence of having preferred to be feared rather than to be dear and beloved (Cic., *Off.*, ii., 8, 29).

d. The subjunctive with *dum*, *dōnec*, *quoad*, in the meanings "while," "so long as," is *very* rare in classical Latin, but occurs several times in Livy, and becomes more common later. The subjunctive here seems to mark the *character* of the time rather than the fact of the occurrence, and thus to differ from the indicative just as the relative clauses of characteristic do. Thus: —

Istō bonō ūtūre dum adsit, cum absit nē requīrās, use that blessing while it is there, but when it is gone do not pine for it (Cic., *Sen.*, 10, 33); *nihil deinde morātus, rēx quattuor mīlia armātōrum, dum recēns terror esset, Scotūssam mīsīt*, then with no delay the king sent four thousand armed men to Scotussa while the panic was fresh (Līv., xxxvi., 9, 13); *nihil sānē trepidābant [elephantī], dōnec continentī velut ponte agerentur*, the elephants displayed no excitement as long as they were driven along what seemed to be a continuous bridge (Līv., xxi., 28, 10).*

* These cases are sometimes, but it seems to me less satisfactorily, explained otherwise: *dum adsit*, as attraction (see 523), *dum esset*, as implied indirect discourse (see 522), *dōnec agerentur*, as a general condition (see 477, d, 2).

503. With *dum*, *dōnec*, *quoad*, meaning “until,” the indicative simply chronicles the fact, the subjunctive implies a purpose. Thus : —

INDICATIVE.

Mihī quidem ūsque cūrae erit, quid agās, dum, quid ēgeris, scierō, I certainly shall be constantly anxious as to how you are until I know how you have been (Cic., *Fam.*, xii., 19, 3).

Ūsque eō timuī, dōnec ad rēiciundōs iūdicēs vēnimus, I was afraid up to the time when we came to rejecting jurymen (Cic., *Verr.*, i., 6, 17).

Tamen nōn faciam fīnem rogandī, quoad nōbīs nūntiātum erit tē id fēcisse, yet I shall not stop asking until word is brought me that you have done the thing (Cic., *Att.*, xvi., 16, 16).

a. *Dōnec* and *quoad* are very rare with the subjunctive in this sense.

b. The imperfect and pluperfect indicative do not occur with *dum*, meaning “until,” and in the subjunctive only the tenses for incomplete action (present and imperfect) are found.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Dum reliquae nāvēs eō convenirent, ad hōram nōnam in ancorīs exspectāvit, he waited at anchor till the ninth hour for the rest of the ships to assemble there (Caes., *B. G.*, iv., 23).

Rogandī orandīque sunt, ut . . . differant in tempus aliud, dum dēfervēscat ira, they must be asked and begged to postpone [their vengeance] till another time, namely, till their wrath cools down (Cic., *Tūsc.*, iv., 36, 78).

Exspectā, amābō tē, dum Atticum conveniam, wait, please, till I meet Atticus (Cic., *Att.*, vii., 1, 4).

Clauses of Proviso.

504. *Dum*, *modō*, and *dummodo*, indicating a PROVISIO (“if only,” “provided that”), take the subjunctive. The negative particle is *nē*. Thus : —

Ōderint, dum metuant, let them hate if only they fear (Suët., *Cal.*, 30); *dum rēs maneant, verba fingant arbitratū suō*, provided the things are left, let them fashion words

at their own sweet will (Cic., *Fin.*, v., 29, 89); *manent ingenia senibus*, **modō** *permaneāt studium et indūstria*, the mental faculties of the old do not become impaired provided their interest and energy hold out (Cic., *Sen.*, 7, 22); *celeriter ad comitia veniendum cēseō*, **dummodo** *nē haec ambitiosa fēstīnātiō aliquid imminuat ēius glōriae*, I think we ought to come quickly to the election, provided that such haste prompted by ambition should not detract somewhat from his glory (Cic., *Fam.*, x., 25, 2); *omnia postposuī*, **dummodo** *praeceptis patris pārērem*, I put everything off, provided I obeyed my father's instructions (Cic. fil. apud Cic., *Fam.*, xvi., 21, 6).

NOTE. The proviso with *modō* and *dummodo* was originally a hortatory subjunctive; with *dum* it developed from the temporal use. Cases like the first example under 502, *d* (*ūtāre, dum adsit*), are the connecting link between the indicative temporal clause and the proviso. In these provisional clauses the subjunctive retains its indefinite future force, the present applying to a present, the imperfect to a past, situation.

Clauses with Antequam and Priusquam.

505. With *antequam* or *priusquam*, "before," the indicative simply states (or denies) as a fact the priority of the thing said in the main clause to that said in the temporal clause; the subjunctive marks a further relation between the two clauses. Thus:—

INDICATIVE.

Antequam *prō L. Mūrē-nā dīcere instituō*, *prō mē ipsō pauca dīcam*, before I begin to speak in defense of Lucius Murena I will say a few words in my own behalf (Cic., *Mūr.*, 1, 2).

Petīlinī nōn antequam vīrēs ad standum in mūrīs ferendaque arma deerant, *expūgnātī sunt*, the Petilini

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Is vīdēlicet antequam veniat in Pontum, litterās ad Cn. Pompēium mīttet, he will, of course, send a letter to Gnaeus Pompeius before he gets to Pontus (Cic., *Agr.*, ii., 20, 53).

Tragoedī cottīdiē antequam prōnūntient vōcem cubantēs sēnsim excitant, the [Greek] tragedians, in a re-

were not beaten until strength to stand on the walls and hold their arms failed them (Liv., xxiii., 30, 4).

Neque dēfatīgābor antequam ancipitīs viās ratiōnēsque et prō omnibus et contrā omnia disputandī percēperō, nor shall I yield to fatigue before I have learned the devious ways and principles of argument on both sides of all questions (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, iii., 36, 145).

Inde ante profectus est Antōnius quam egō eum vēnisse cōgnōvī, Antonius went away from there before I learned that he had come (Cic., *Att.*, xv., 1, a, 2).

Membrīs ūtimur priusquam didicimus, cūius ea causā ūtilitātis habeamus, we use our limbs before we have learned for what useful purpose we have them (Cic., *Fin.*, iii., 20, 66).

Neque prius fugere dēstiterunt, quam ad flūmen Rhēnum . . . pervēnērunt, nor did they stop fleeing before they reached the river Rhine (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 53).

Antequam tuās lēgī litterās, hominem ire cupiēbam, before I read your letter I wanted the man to go (Cic., *Att.*, ii., 7, 2).

clining position, daily practice raising their voices gradually louder and louder, before they are to declaim their parts (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, i., 59, 251).

Priusquam inde dīgrederentur, rogantī Mettiō, ex foedere īctō quid imperāret, imperat Tullus, uti iuventūtem in armīs habeat, in answer to the question of Mettius before they left the place, what his orders were in accordance with the treaty they had struck, Tullus ordered him to keep the young men under arms (Liv., i., 26, 1).

Inde ante discēssit quam illum vēnisse audissem, he went from there before I had heard of his having come (Cic., *Att.*, xiv., 20, 2).

Numidæ priusquam ex castrīs subvenīrētur, sicutī iūssī erant, in proximōs collēs dēscendunt, the Numidians go down, as they had been ordered, to the nearest hills before aid from the camp could arrive (Sall., *Iug.*, 54).

Nōn prius Viridovicem reliquōsque ducēs ex conciliō dīmīttunt, quam ab hīs sit concēssum, they do not let Viridovix and the other leaders go from the meeting before they have granted (Caes., *B. G.*, iii., 18).

NOTE. The difference between the two moods can be seen most plainly in the fourth pair of examples above. Here the indicative simply chronicles the fact that Antonius had gone before Cicero learned of his coming, the subjunctive implies that Cicero's not knowing of his coming prevented him from stopping Antonius' departure. In the first subjunctive example there is an implication that it is important to have the letter sent before the writer himself appears; in the second example the purpose of the practice is hinted at in the subjunctive *prōnūntient*, and so on.

a. Beginning, perhaps, with Livy, the feeling for this difference between an indicative and a subjunctive in temporal clauses is more and more confused, and the subjunctive becomes more and more common where it is difficult, if not impossible, to see why the indicative should not have been used. Thus: —

Paucīs ante diēbus quam Syracūsae caperentur, T. Otācilius cum quīnquerēmibus octōgintā Uticam ab Lilybaeō trāsmīsīt, a few days before Syracuse was taken, Titus Otacilius crossed over to Utica from Libybaeum with eighty men-of-war (Līv., xxv., 31, 12).

Cf. also Clauses with *Cum*, 509.

Clauses with *Postquam*, *Ubi*, etc.

506. Clauses with *postquam* (*posteaquam*), "after," and *ubi*, "when," "after," "as soon as," almost always, and clauses with *ut*, "when," "as soon as," and *simul ac*, "as soon as," perhaps always, take the indicative, simply stating (or denying) that the act of the main clause is subsequent to that of the temporal clause. These conjunctions have a preference for the *perfect* tense, even where the pluperfect would be more exact (cf. 469). Thus: —

Militēs postquam victōriam adepti sunt, nihil reliquū victis fēcēre, the soldiers, after they [had] won the victory, left nothing to the conquered (Sall., *Cat.*, 11); *postquam instructi utrūsq̄ue stābant, . . . in medium ducēs prōcēdunt*, after they got into position on both sides, . . . the leaders came forward into the space between (Līv., i., 23, 6); *ubi dē eius adventū Helvētīū certiōrēs facti sunt, lēgātōs ad eum mīttunt*, when (after) the Helvetians were informed of his arrival, they

sent ambassadors to him (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 7); *Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, aciē excēssit*, after Pompeius saw his cavalry routed he withdrew from the battle (Caes., *B. C.*, iii., 94); *simul āc primum eī occāsiō vīsa est, āversā pecūniā publicā quaestor cōsulem dēseruit*, as soon as it seemed to him a good opportunity, the quaestor, appropriating the funds of the state, abandoned his consul (Cic., *Verr.*, i., 13, 34).

507. Other temporal expressions than *ante*, *prius*, and *post* are sometimes followed by a clause with *quam*. Thus:—

Intrā trīduum quam oppūgnāre coeperat, receptam [urbem] ex hostibus colōnīs restituit, within three days from beginning the siege he recovered the town from the enemy and restored it to the settlers (Līv., xli., 16, 8); *Lilybaeum tertiō diē quam inde profectus erat . . . rediit*, he came back to Lilybaeum three days after he had gone from there (Līv., xxv., 31, 14); *multa mēhercule fēcit Antōnius prīdiē quam tū illum relinquerēs*, Antonius was very active indeed the day before you left him (cf. Vell., *Pater.*, ii., 83, 3); *cum eō Catulus et Lūcullus nōsque ipsī postrīdiē vēnissēmus quam apud Catulum fuissēmus*, when Catulus, Lucullus, and myself had come there the day after we had been at Catulus's house (Cic., *Acad.*, ii., 3, 9).

508. Livy, Tacitus, and the later writers sometimes use the subjunctive (pluperfect as well as imperfect) with *ubi* (and *quotiēns*), to denote the general repetition of an act in past time, where the classical writers have the indicative. Thus:—

Id ubī dīxisset, hastam in finēs eōrum ēmittēbat, when [every time] he had said this, he would throw a spear into their country (Līv., i., 32, 14); *quotiēns super tālī negotiō cōsultāret, editā domūs parte āc libertī ūnūs cōscientiā ūtēbātūr*, whenever he conferred about a matter of this kind, he would retire to the upper part of the palace and take only one freedman as a witness (Tac., *Ann.*, vi., 21).

Cf. under Conditional Sentences, 477, *d*, 2, and under *cum*, 510, 1, and examples 8–13 in the indicative column, 9–11 in the subjunctive column.

NOTE 1. *Ut* is found with the subjunctive only in the following example: —

Iam ut limen exirem ad genua accidit lacrumāns misera, the minute I crossed the threshold the poor girl fell weeping at my feet (Ter., *Hec.*, iii., 3, 18).

NOTE 2. *Postquam* also occurs in one or two passages with the subjunctive, though in the few places in Cicero where it occurs in the manuscripts (in the form *postea quam*) the best texts now read *postea cum*.

Clauses with Cum (Quom).

509. (1.) Clauses with *cum* (*quom*), “when,” if present, imperfect, or future, mark a collateral event occurring at the same time as the main event; if perfect, pluperfect, or future perfect, they mark a collateral event occurring just before the main event.

(2.) If only this temporal relation exists between the two events, the *cum* clause takes the INDICATIVE.

(3.) If a further relation * exists, but the *actual occurrence* of the collateral event is more important than that relation, the *cum* clause again takes the INDICATIVE.

(4.) But if the marking of the further relation is the more important thing to the writer, the *cum* clause takes the SUBJUNCTIVE.

a. In the imperfect and pluperfect tenses the subjunctive is so much more common † than the indicative, even where a difference of meaning is hardly appreciable, that it is a good practical rule for the beginner in writing Latin, that these tenses should not be used in the indicative.

* That is, if one event is to be regarded as causing, hindering, or otherwise affecting the other.

† The proportion of subjunctives to indicatives in Cicero’s orations is about five to one for the imperfect tense, more than twenty to one for the pluperfect.

NOTE. The subjunctive with *cum* is a characteristic subjunctive, as with the relative pronouns. (Cf. 500, 2, note.) The primary difference of meaning between the indicative and the subjunctive is thus roughly indicated by the expressions "at the time when" (indicative), "at a time when" (subjunctive). (Cf. the first pair of examples below.)

510. From the simple temporal meaning, *cum* (*quom*) passes into the meanings:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| (1.) "Whenever" (application general) | } chiefly with the
<i>indicative</i> , until
after the classical
period. |
| "Now that" (applying to the immediate present) | |
| "In that" (explanatory) | |
| (2.) "Although" (implying a hindrance) | } with the <i>subjunctive</i> , except in early Latin. |
| "Since" (implying a reason) | |
| "While on the other hand" (an alternative) | |

a. In Plautus and Terence and other early Latin writers, the subjunctive with *quom* is rare, the indicative being used, whether the mere fact of time is to be expressed or a reason is to be implied.

511. These uses and shades of meaning can best be understood by a careful study of a series of examples like the following:—

INDICATIVE.

Nam in cētērīs rēbus cum venit calamitās, tum dētrimentum accipitur, for in everything else the damage is received only when the disaster actually comes (Cic., *Lēg. Mān.*, 6, 15).

Cum haec Rōmae agēbantur, Chalcide Antiochus sollicitābat cīvitatium animōs, when this was going on at

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Nunc in ipsō discrīmine ordinis iūdiciorumque vestrorum, cum sint parātī quī, etc., now at the very crisis of the danger to the senate and to your right of supplying juries, at a time when there are people ready to, etc. (Cic., *Verr. Act.*, i., 1, 2).

Iipse, cum primum pābuli cōpia esse inciperet, ad

Rome, Antiochus was stirring up the feelings of the cities at Chalcis (Līv., xxxvi., 5, 1).

Cum haec legēs, habēbimus cōsulēs, when you read this we shall have consuls (Cic., *Att.*, v., 12, 2).

Cum primum Rōmam vēnī, nihil prius faciendum putāvī, as soon as I got to Rome I thought nothing ought to be done earlier (Cic., *Att.*, iv., 1, 1).

Nōndum centum et decem annī sunt cum dē pecūniis repetundīs ā L. Pīsōne lāta lēx est, nūlla antea cum fuisset, it is not yet a hundred and ten years since Lucius Piso proposed a law about bribery, there having been none before (Cic., *Off.*, ii., 21, 75).

Tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī amiserant, scīmus Rōmae solūtiōne impeditā fidem concidisse, at that time, when a large number of people had lost large fortunes in Asia, we know that payment was obstructed at Rome and credit collapsed (Cic., *Lēg. Mān.*, 7, 19).

Sīn cum potuerō, nōn vēnerō, tum erit inimīcus, but if I do not come when I can, then he will be my enemy (Cic., *Att.*, ix., 2, a, 2).

exercitum venit, he himself, as soon as there began to be plenty of fodder, went to the army (Caes., *B. G.*, ii., 2).

Zēnōnem cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, during my stay at Athens I often attended Zeno's lectures (Cic., *N. D.*, i., 21, 59).

Poterō silēre, Hortēnsī, poterō dissimulāre, cum tantum rēs pūblica volnus accēperit? can I be silent, Hortensius, can I hide my feelings at a time when the state has received so severe a wound? (Cic., *Verr.*, v., 70, 179).

Cum eius prōmissis legionēs fortissimae reclāmāsset, domum ad sē venīre iūsset centuriōnēs, when the legions most stoutly held out against his promises, he ordered the centurions to come to his house (Cic., *Phil.*, v., 8, 22).

Cum hostem populū Rōmānī Antōnium iūdicāsset, comes esse eius āmentiae nōluit, having judged Antony the enemy of the Roman people, he did not wish to be the companion of his madness (Cic., *Phil.*, iii., 3, 6).

Haec Scīpiō cum dixisset, L. Fūrium repente venientem adspexit, etc., when

Serpit deinde rēs, quae prō-clīvius ad perniciem, cum semel coepit, lābitur, then the thing winds along, and when it has once begun glides swiftly to destruction (Cic., *Am.*, 12, 41).

Deinde cum similis sēsus exstitit amōris, sī aliquem, etc., secondly, when a like feeling of affection has arisen, if any one, etc. (Cic., *Am.*, 8, 27).

Cum ad villam vēnī, hōc ipsum nihil agere et plānē cēssāre mē dēlectat, when I come to my country seat, this very inactivity and absolute idleness charm me (cf. Cic., *dē Ōr.*, ii., 6, 24).

Cum pater familiae illustriore locō nātus dēcēssit, ēius propīnquī conveniunt, when the head of a house of high birth dies, his kinsmen gather together (Caes., *B. G.*, vi., 19).

Cum rosam vīderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur, whenever he saw a rose he thought spring was beginning (Cic., *Verr.*, v., 10, 27).

Plērumque milītēs statīvīs castrīs habēbat, nisi cum odōs aut pābulī egestās locum mūtāre subēgerat, he generally had been keeping the soldiers

Scipio had said this, he looked up and suddenly saw Lucius Furius coming (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, i., 11, 17).

Cum autem contrahat amīcitiam, ut suprā dīxī, sī qua sīgnificātiō virtūtis ēlūceat, ad quam sē similis animus adplicet et adiungat, id cum contigit, amor exoriātur necesse est, and when, in case as I have said, some indication of merit flashes out, towards which a like nature is drawn to unite itself, a friendship is formed, — when this happens, affection must arise (Cic., *Am.*, 14, 48).

Ut A. Varius, quī est habitus iūdex dūrior, dīcere cōsēssōrī solēbat, cum datīs testibus aliī tamen citārentur, as Aulus Varius, who was considered an austere judge, used to say to his colleague on the bench, when, after some witnesses had been heard, others were still all the time being called (Cic., *Fīn.*, ii., 19, 62).

Cum in iūs dūcī dēbitōrem vīdissent, undique convolābant, whenever they saw a debtor arrested, they gathered from all sides (Liv., ii., 27, 8).

Neque hērēditātem cūiusquam adiit, nisi cum amī-

in the same camp, except when miasma or want of fodder had compelled him to change his position (Sall., *Iug.*, 44).

Atque utinam tam in periculō fuisset! cum ego iīs, quibus meam salutem cārissimam esse arbitrābar, inimicissimīs crudēlissimisque ūsus sum, and oh that it had been in such danger! now that I have found those most hostile and cruel to whom I thought my safety was most dear (Cic., *Att.*, iii., 13, 2).

Sunt enim quīdam, quī molestās amicitias faciunt, cum ipsi sē contemnī putant, for there are people who make friendship a bore, when [in that] they keep fancying themselves slighted (Cic., *Am.*, 20, 72).

Quae cum praepōnunt ut sit aliqua rerum selectiō, naturam videntur sequi; cum autem negant ea quicquam ad beatam vitam pertinere, rursus naturam relinquant, when [in that] they put forward this doctrine, that there is a choice in things, they seem to follow nature, but in that [when] they maintain that the things have nothing to do with happiness they leave

citiū meruisset, nor did he accept any man's bequests except when they belonged to him through right of friendship (Tac., *Ann.*, ii., 48).

Quod cum māius esse videatur quam insānia, tamen eiusmodi est ut, etc., and although this seems to be greater than insanity, yet its nature is such that, etc. (Cic., *Tusc.*, iii., 5, 11).

Hic tū mē accūsās quod mē adflīctem, cum ita sim adflīctus, ut nemō umquam, under these circumstances you upbraid me because I bewail my lot, when I have been tried as no man was ever tried (Cic., *Att.*, iii., 12, 1).

Itaque fāmā et multitudinis iudiciō moventur, cum id honestum putent, quod ā plērisque laudētur, therefore they are influenced by what men say and by the judgment of the crowd, when they imagine that right which is approved by the majority (Cic., *Tusc.*, ii., 26, 63).

Quā caecati hominēs, cum quaedam etiam praeclūra cuperent, eaque nescirent nec ubi nec quālia essent, funditus alii, etc., and men, blinded by this, while desiring some things really admirable,

nature again (Cic., *Fin.*, iv., 16, 43).

Grātulor tibi, cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam, I congratulate you in that you have so much influence with Dolabella (Cic., *Att.*, xiv., 17, a, 3).

Quom adfīnitāte vostrā mē arbitrāminī dīgnum, habeo vōbīs, Philtō, māgnam grātiam, in that [since] your family think me worthy of their alliance, Philto, I am very grateful (Plaut., *Trin.*, 504).

Dī tibi, Dēmea, bene faciānt, quom tē videō nostrae familiae tam ex animō factum velle, the gods bless you, Demea, now that [since] I see you wish our family so thoroughly well (Ter., *Ad.*, 917).

a. When *cum* has the general meaning "whenever," the tense is more commonly one of completed action. (Cf. the examples.)

b. The meaning of *cum* is often more exactly defined (especially with the indicative) by the addition of words like *primum*, *interim*, *intereā*, *nōndum*, *quidem*, *tamen*, etc. (Cf. the examples.)

512. Sometimes, by an inversion which also occurs in English, the main statement is put into the *cum* clause, and the (grammatically) principal clause contains the accessory statement. The *cum* clause then stands after the main clause, and usually takes the indicative. Thus:—

but not knowing either where or what they were, have some of them utterly, etc. (Cic., *Tūsc.*, iii., 2, 4).

Quae cum ita sint Catilīna perge quō coepistī, since [now that] this is so, Catiline, go on as you have begun (Cic., *Cat.*, i., 5, 10).

[*Dionysius*], *cum in communibus suggestīs cōsistere nōn auderet, cōtiōnārī ex turrī altā solēbat*, Dionysius, not daring to take his place on the general platforms, used to speak from a high tower (Cic., *Tūsc.*, v., 20, 59).

Cum inimicitiae fuerint numquam . . . rei publicae prōvidēbō, since there never have been enmities . . . I will look out for the country (Cic., *Prōv. Cōns.*, 20, 47).

INDICATIVE.

Dixerat hoc ille, cum puer nūntiāvit venire ad eum Laelium domoque iam exisse, he had just finished speaking, when a slave brought word that Laelius was coming, and had already left the house (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, i., 12, 18).

Diēs nōndum decem intercēsserant, cum ille alter filiū infāns necātur, ten days had not yet intervened, when that other infant son was slain (Cic., *Clu.*, 9, 28).

Prīmō actū placeō, quom intereū rūmor venit datum iri gladiātōrēs ; populus convolat, in the first act I win applause, when suddenly a report comes that there is to be a prize fight, and the people flock thither (Ter., *Hec.*, 39).

a. This inversion gives a more lively effect to what is said. Compare in English, "When we reached the middle of the valley, the cannon suddenly thundered forth," and "We had reached the middle of the valley, when suddenly the cannon thundered forth."

NOTE. The pupil should be cautioned that this inversion does not always take place when the *cum* clause stands after the main clause.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Simulat sē eōrum praesidiō cōnfīdere, cum intereā aliud quiddam iam diū māchinētur, he pretends that he has confidence in their protection, while meantime he has been long concocting another scheme (Cic., *Verr.*, Act i., 6, 15).

Egō in castra a. d. VII K. Sept. vēnī, cum intereā superiōribus diēbus ex senātūs cōsultō et evocātorum firmam mānum et equitātum comparāvissem, I went into camp on the twenty-sixth of August, when meanwhile during the days before I had got together in accordance with the Senate's decree a strong force of retired veterans and cavalry (Cic., *Fam.*, xv., 4, 3).

513. *Cum . . . tum* pass from the meaning "when . . . then" into the meanings "while . . . yet," "not only . . . but also," "both . . . and," and then are often used to connect single words or expressions. (Cf. the last example below.) Thus : —

INDICATIVE.

Cratippum cum audiō lubenter, tum etiam propriam eius suāvitātem vehementer amplector, I not only hear Cratippus gladly, but even am particularly fond of his peculiar charm of style.

Sed cum multis in rebus neglegentiā plēctimur, tum maximē in amicis et diligendis et colendis, but while in many things we are punished for carelessness, this is particularly the case in choosing and cultivating friends (Cic., *Am.*, 22, 85).

Ille quidem fructum omnis ante actae vitae hodiernō diē maximum cepit, cum summō cōsensū senātūs tum iudiciō tuō gravissimō et maximō, as far as he is concerned, he has to-day reaped the richest fruit of all his past life, both through the unanimous approval of the senate and through your most weighty and exalted decision (Cic., *Mārc.*, 1, 3).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Cōsiliū tuum cum semper probāvissem tum multo magis probāvi lēctis tuis litteris, though I had always approved your plan, I approved it much more after having read your letter.

Cumque plurimās et maximās commoditatēs amicitia contineat, tum illā nēmīrum praestat omnibus, etc., and while friendship includes very many great advantages, it no doubt surpasses all other things in this, that it, etc. (Cic., *Am.*, 7, 23).

CONSTRUCTIONS OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

The CONSTRUCTIONS OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE include:—

1. INDIRECT DISCOURSE proper.
2. INDIRECT QUESTIONS.
3. CLAUSES OF QUOTED CAUSE.
4. Other dependent CLAUSES GIVING ANOTHER'S IDEA without any verb of saying expressed.
5. CLAUSES in the SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

Indirect Discourse Proper.

514. When a person's words or thoughts (whether another person's or the speaker's own) are quoted, not in their exact grammatical form, but in narrative form de-

pending upon a word of saying or thinking, the quotation is called INDIRECT (*Ōrātiō oblīqua* *).

515. In indirect discourse : —

(1.) All *subordinate verbs* are put in the SUBJUNCTIVE.

(2.) The *main verb* is put in the INFINITIVE, except that —

(3.) *Imperatives* are put in the SUBJUNCTIVE, and *hortatory* and *dubitative subjunctives* retain their mood.

Thus : —

Dicit hīc sibi nōn placēre, quod quaedam nōn inveniantur, quibus sibi opus sit, he says he does not like it here, because certain things of which he has need are not found (*illī nōn placet, quod . . . nōn inveniuntur, quibus eī opus est*).

Dixit sē nōn crēdere; an fieri id posse, he said he did not believe it; or could this be done? (*nōn crēdō; an fieri id potest?*)

Dicit āleam iactam esse; quid faciat? statim proficiscantur exercitusque sequātur, he says the die is cast; what can he do? let them start at once and let the army follow (*ālea iacta est; quid faciam? statim proficiscimini exercitusque sequātur*).

516. If the verb of saying or thinking upon which an indirect discourse depends denotes PAST time (*i. e.*, is imperfect, historical perfect, or pluperfect), the dependent clauses, as a rule, are all thrown into the past (*i. e.*, the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive †). Thus : —

INDIRECT.

DIRECT.

1. *Ad haec Ariovistus respondit:*

<i>Iūs esse bellī, ut, quī vī-</i> <i>cissent, iīs quōs vīcissent,</i> <i>quem ad modum vellent,</i>	<i>“ Iūs est bellī, ut, quī vī-</i> <i>cerint, iīs quōs vīcerint,</i> <i>quem ad modum { velint } { volunt },</i>
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* Direct Discourse is called in Latin *Ōrātiō rēcta*.

† These tenses, therefore, do not always *imply non-fulfillment* in conditional clauses quoted, but often merely indicate that a supposed case is thrown into the past.

imperārent: *item populum Rōmānum victīs nōn ad alterius praescriptum, sed ad suum arbitrium imperāre cōsuēsse. Sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescriberet, quem ad modum suō iūre ūteretur, nōn oportere sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impediri. Haeduōs sibī, quoniam bellī fortunam temptāssent et armīs congressī, ac superātī essent, stīpendiārīos esse factōs. Māgnam Caesarem iniūriam facere, quī suō adventū vectīgālia sibī dēteriōra faceret. Haeduīs sē obsidēs redditūrum nōn esse, neque iīs neque eōrum sociīs iniūriā bellum illātūrum, sī in eō manērent quod convēnissent stīpendiumque quotannīs penderent; sī id nōn fēcissent, longē iīs frāternum nōmen populī Rōmānī āfutūrum. Quod sibī Caesar dēnūntiāret, sē Haeduōrum iniūriās nōn neglētūrum, nēminem sēcum sine suā perniciē contendisse. Cum vellet, congredērētur: intellēctūrum, quid invictī Germānī, exercitātissimī in armīs, quī inter annōs quattuordecim tēctum nōn subissent, virtūte possent.*

imperent: *item populus Rōmānus victīs nōn ad alterius praescriptum, sed ad suum arbitrium imperāre cōsuēvit. Sī egō populō Rōmānō nōn praescribō, quem ad modum suō iūre ūtātur, nōn oportet mē ā populō Rōmānō in meō iūre impediri. Haeduī mihi, quoniam bellī fortunam temptārun et armīs congressī ac superātī sunt, stīpendiārīi sunt factī. Māgnam tū, Caesar, iniūriam facis, quī tuō adventū vectīgālia mihi dēteriōra facis. Haeduīs obsidēs nōn reddam, neque iīs neque eōrum sociīs iniūriā bellum illātūrus sum, sī in eō {maneant
manēbunt} quod convēnērunt stīpendiumque quotannis {pendant
pendent}; sī id nōn fēcērint, longē iīs frāternum nōmen populī Rōmānī aberit. Quod mihi dēnūntiās, tē Haeduōrum iniūriās nōn neglētūrum, nēmō mēcum sine suā perniciē contendit. Cum {volēs,
velis,} congredere: intellēgēs, quid invictī Germānī, exercitātissimī in armīs, quī inter annōs quattuordecim tēctum nōn {sublērunt
sublērint} virtūte possint (Caes., B. G., i., 36).*

2. *Quod sī veteris contumēliae obliviscī vellet, num etiam recentium iniuriarum, quod eō invitō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptās-sent, quod Haeduōs, quod Ambarrōs, quod Allobrogas vexāssent, memoriam dēpōnere posse? Quod suā victōriā tam insolenter glōriā-rentur quodque tam diū sē impūnē tulisse iniuriās admīrārentur, eōdem perti-nēre.*

2. *Quod sī veteris contumēliae obliviscī velim, num etiam recentium iniuriarum, quod mē invitō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptāstis, quod Haeduōs, quod Ambarrōs, quod Allobrogas vexāstis, memoriam dēpōnere {possim} {possun}?* *Quod vestrā victōriā tam insolenter glōriāminī quodque tam diū vōs impūnē tulisse iniuriās admīrāminī, eōdem pertinet* (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 14).

3. *Caesar ad Lingonas litterās nūntiōsque mīsīt :*

Nē eōs frūmentō nēve aliā rē iuvārent; quī sī iūvis-sent sē eōdem locō quō Helvētīos, habitūrum.

Nē eōs frūmentō nēve aliā rē iūveritis; sī iūveritis vōs eōdem locō quō Helvētīos habēbō (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 26).

NOTE. For the convenience of the pupil the following translation of the indirect form of the above passages is subjoined : —

1. To this Ariovistus made answer, that it was the right of war for those who had conquered to lay upon those whom they had conquered such commands as they pleased; the Roman people likewise were in the habit of laying commands upon the conquered not at another's dictation, but according to their own judgment. If he did not dictate to the Roman people how they were to use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. The Haeduans had been made his tributaries since they had tried the fortune of war and had been met and defeated in battle. That Caesar was guilty of a great wrong in that by his arrival he was diminishing his revenues from tribute. He was not going to restore the Haeduans' hostages to them, nor did he intend to make war upon them or their allies wrongfully [as he would be

doing in case he attacked them] if they stood by their agreement and paid their tribute yearly; if they did not do this, they would find the name of brethren given them by the Roman people very far from being of advantage to them. As to Caesar's threatening him that he would not disregard injuries done to the Haeduan [he would say] that no one had fought with him without bringing destruction upon himself; he might come to an engagement whenever he pleased, and would find out what the unconquerable Germans, who were thoroughly trained soldiers and had not lived under a roof for fourteen years, could accomplish in bravery.

2. But if he should be willing to forget the insults of long standing, could he also lay aside the remembrance of the recent wrongs they had done, in that they had tried to force a way through our province against his will, and had harassed the Haeduan, the Ambarri, and the Allobroges? Their boasting so arrogantly of the victory they had won and their surprise at having inflicted injuries so long without rousing vengeance pointed in the same direction.

3. Caesar sent a letter and messengers to the Lingones, saying that they were not to aid them with grain or anything else; if they did aid them, he should regard them as on a par with the Helvetians.

a. Sometimes when the verb on which the Indirect Discourse depends is in a past tense a subordinate subjunctive is retained in the present tense, thus giving a more lively effect. Thus:—

Ad haec Q. Mārcius respondit: ab armīs discēdant, Rōmam supplicēs proficiscantur, to this Quintus Marcius answered, let them withdraw from arms and go as suppliants to Rome; *eī lēgātīōnī Ariovistus respondit: sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse; sī quid ille ā sē velit illum ad sē venīre oportēre*, to this embassy Ariovistus made answer, that if he had needed anything from Caesar he would have gone to him; if Caesar wanted anything of him he [also] ought to come to him (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 34). Cf. also chapters 14 and 31 of the same book.

NOTE. By thus using the present tense the writer brings, for the moment, the time when the thing was originally said up to the time when it is quoted. Such a construction represents a sort of half-way stage between completely direct and completely indirect quotation. For a still more marked fusion of the time when a speech was made with the time at which it is quoted see ch. 40 of the same book: *factum ēius hostis periculum patrum nostrōrum memoriā, cum, Cimbris et Teutonīs ā C. Mariō pulsīs, nōn minōrem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperātor meritis vidēbātur*, that trial was made of that enemy within the memory of our fathers, when the Cimbri and Teutones were routed by Gaius Marius and the army seemed to have earned as much glory as the general himself. The clause *cum . . . vidēbātur* is taken out of the indirect discourse and said, as it were, to the reader.

b. Of the three verbs of saying, *dīcō* most commonly introduces indirect discourse, but may also introduce direct discourse; *āiō* is used almost exclusively for indirect discourse, except in the phrase "*ut ait Ennius, Cicerō, etc.*;" *inquam* is used only for direct discourse, and always stands after some word or phrase of the quotation; as, "*scīs mē,*" *inquam*, "*idem sentīre,*" "you know," said I, "that I hold the same opinion."

c. Short direct questions like *quid crēditis?* are generally put in the subjunctive in indirect discourse rather than in the infinitive; *quid crēderent*, not *quid crēdere*. (Cf. *Līv.*, vi., 37, 6.)

d. Relative clauses in which the relative is equivalent to a demonstrative and connective (cf. 451) have the force of independent clauses, and are generally put in the infinitive, in indirect discourse. Thus:—

Unumquemque nostrum [cēnsent] ēius mundi esse partem; ex quō illud nātūrā consequī. ut, etc., each one of us, they think, is a part of that universe: from which it naturally follows that, etc. (Cic., *Fīn.*, iii., 19, 64); *quibus proeliīs calamitātibusque frāctōs . . . coāctōs esse Sēquanīs obsidēs dare*, and that, broken by these battles and disasters, they had been obliged to give hostages to the Sequani (Caes., *B. G.*, i., 31).

So also sometimes other clauses which are dependent in form but independent in force; as:—

Saepe dictum est, ut mare, quod suā nātūrā tranquillum sit,

ventōrum vī agitārī atque turbārī, sic populum Rōmānum, etc., it has often been said that as the sea, which in its own nature is peaceful, is roused and put in commotion by the force of the winds, so the Roman people, etc. (Cic., *Clu.*, 49, 138).

e. Comparative clauses after *quam* more commonly appear in the infinitive (when the clause containing the other term of the comparison has the infinitive), but sometimes they have the subjunctive with or without *ut*. Thus : —

Addit etiam sē prius occēsum īrī ab eō quam mē violātum īrī, he adds also that he would allow himself to be killed by him sooner than have me injured (Cic., *Att.*, ii., 20, 2) ; *sē mīliēns moritūrōs potius quam ut tantum dēdecoris admittī patiantur*, that they would die a thousand times rather than suffer such disgraceful action to be taken (Līv., iv., 2, 8).

NOTE. Cicero prefers the infinitive, Livy the subjunctive alone or with *ut*; Caesar has the infinitive and the subjunctive without *ut*.

f. Subordinate clauses (mostly relative) may be retained in the indicative if they contain explanatory statements which are true independent of the quotation, or are merely a part of the definition of something mentioned. Thus : —

Per explorātōrēs certior factus est ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concēsserat, omnēs noctū discēssisse, he was informed by spies that everybody had left by night the part of the village which he had given up to the Gauls (Caes., *B. G.*, iii., 2) ; *quis potest esse tam praeceps quī neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī*, who can be so rash as to deny that all this world we see about us is regulated by the power of gods ? (Cic., *Cat.*, iii., 9, 21).

g. Sometimes in the same quotation a change is made from indirect to direct discourse. Thus : —

Tālī modō accūsātus ad haec respondit : quod castra mō-visset, factum inopiā pābuli. . . . “Haec ut intellegūtis” inquit “sincērē ā mē prōnūntiārī, audīte Rōmānōs mīlitēs,” accused in this fashion, he made answer to the accusation, that as to his having moved his camp, this was due to want of fodder. . . . “And that you may know that I am sincere in saying this,”

said he, "listen to [the testimony of these] Roman soldiers" (Caes., *B. G.*, vii., 20).

517. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT undergo a slight change of form in indirect discourse, as follows : —

(1.) In the active voice generally the apodosis, if imperfect subjunctive, becomes *future infinitive* (i. e., *factūrum*, etc., *esse*) ; if pluperfect, it becomes *factūrum*, etc., *fuisse*. Thus : —

[*Titūrius clāmitābat*] *neque aliter Carnūtēs interficiendī Tasgetī cōnsilium fuisse captūrōs, neque Eburōnēs, sī ille adesset, tantā cum contemptiōne nostrī ad castra ventūrōs esse*, Titurius kept crying out that otherwise the Carnutes would not have formed the plan of slaying Tasgetius, and that the Eburones, if he were there, would not come to camp with such marked contempt for us (Caes., *B. G.*, v., 29) ; *an cēnsēs mē tantōs labōrēs sūseptūrum fuisse, sī isdem fīnibus glōriam meam quibus vītā essē terminātūrus*, or do you suppose I should have taken such toils upon myself if I had expected to bound my glory by the same limits as my life ? (Cic., *Sen.*, 23, 82).

(2.) In the passive voice regularly, and in the active occasionally, the circumlocution *futūrum esse* (*fore*) *ut* is used for present conditions contrary to fact, *futūrum fuisse ut* for past conditions. The subjunctive used with this *ut* is then in both cases imperfect. Thus : —

Nisi eō ipsō tempore quīdam nūntiū dē Caesaris victōriā per dispositōs equitēs essent adlātī, existimābant plerīque futūrum fuisse ut [oppidum] amitterētur, most people thought that unless certain messages about Caesar's victory had been brought at that very time by horsemen stationed at intervals for the purpose, the town would have been lost (Caes., *B. C.*, iii., 101).

a. Occasionally some form of *posse*, *dēbēre*, or the like, or a gerundive, takes the place of the future participle in the above expressions. Thus : —

Platōnem existimō, sī genus forēnse dīcendī trāctāre voluisset gravissimē potuisse dīcere, I judge that if Plato had chosen to take up the forensic kind of oratory, he could have made a most effective speaker; *appāret nōn recipiendum fuisse Tarentum, nisi amissum foret*, it would seem that Tarentum would not have had to be retaken if it had not been lost. (Cf. also 477 c.)

NOTE. With regard to the apodoses of conditions other than those contrary to fact it should be observed that the future indicative and present subjunctive are represented in the indirect discourse by the future infinitive, the future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive by *fore ut* with the perfect * subjunctive in the active voice, by the perfect participle with *fore* in passives and deponents. Thus: —

Dicit sī rogēs sē factūrum esse, he says he will (or would) do it if you ask (or should ask) him, — in direct discourse, *sī rogēs (rogābis) . . . faciat (faciet)*.

Spērō fore ut sī negōtia mea bene cēsserint mox ad vōs redierim, I hope that if my affairs turn out well, I shall soon come back to you, — in direct discourse, *sī cēsserint . . . redierim (redierō)*.

Hōc possum dīcere, mē satis adeptum fore, sī . . . nūllum in mē periculum redundārit, this I can say, that I shall have obtained enough if no danger flows back upon me, — in direct discourse, *satis adeptus erō (erim) . . . sī . . . redundārit* (Cic., *Sull.*, 9, 27).

Indirect Questions.

518. INDIRECT QUESTIONS take the subjunctive. Thus: —

Docē mē, igitur, unde sint, ubī sint, quālēs sint, tell me, then, whence [the gods] come, where they are, what their nature is (Cic., *N. D.*, i., 23, 65); *id utrum illī sentiant, an vērō simulent, tū intellegēs*, you will understand whether that is their real opinion or whether they are in fact pretending (Cic.); *sī quālis sit animus, ipse animus nēsciet*, if the mind itself shall not know what sort of a thing the mind is (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 22, 53).

a. The expressions *nēsciō quis*, *nēsciō quō modō*, *nēsciō unde*, etc., are generally equivalent to "some one," "somehow,"

* Pluperfect when the verb of saying is past (see 516).

etc., and therefore having lost their interrogative force, have no influence upon the mood of the verb which follows them. Thus : —

Sed cāsū nēsciō quō in ea tempora aetās nostra incidit, but by some chance my life has fallen upon a time, etc. (Cic.).

b. So also *mīrum quam, mīrum quantum, nimium quantum*; as : —

Salēs quī in dīcendō nimium quantum valent, wit, which has some tremendous power in oratory (Cic., *Or.*, 26, 87).

c. In early Latin the indicative was used in indirect questions, and this use frequently occurs in Plautus and Terence. Thus : —

Scīre volō, quoi reddidistī, I want to know to whom you gave it (Plaut., *Curc.*, 543); *vidē avāritia quid facit*, see what greed does (Ter., *Ph.*, 358).

d. Indirect questions are sometimes, by a development from conditional clauses which also occurs in English, introduced by *sī* = “if,” “whether.” Thus : —

Quaesivit iterum sī cum Rōmānīs militāre licēret, his second question was, whether [if] he might serve in the Roman army (Liv., xl., 49, 6); *mīrābar hōc sī sic abīret et erī semper lenitās verēbar quōrsum evāderet*, I wondered if [whether] this would [not] come out so, and was always apprehensive as to what master’s easy discipline would result in (Ter., *An.*, 175).

e. Sometimes, especially in the comic poets, a direct question is repeated with surprise by the person to whom it is addressed, and thus becomes indirect and is put in the subjunctive depending on the idea “do you ask.” Thus : —

Quid nunc faciundum cēnsēs? Tr. *Egō quid cēnseam?* What do you think ought to be done now? Tr. What do I think? (Plaut., *Mōst.*, 556).

NOTE. Indirect questions are not to be confounded with dependent relative clauses, though sometimes the form is the same. Thus : —

Dicam quae sentiam (interrogative) = *quae sentiō?* *dicam*, What do I

think? I will tell; *dicam quae sentiam* (relative) = *dicam ea quae sentiō* or *sentiam*, I will say the things I think.

For the use of the interrogative particles in indirect questions, see 579 ff.

Causal Clauses with Quod, Quia, Quoniam.

519. In causal clauses with *quod* or *quia*,* “because,” and *quoniam*, “since,” the indicative simply asserts (or denies) one thing as the cause or reason of another; the subjunctive represents the cause as one assigned by some one other than the speaker or writer, — generally by the subject of the main clause.

NOTE. It is to be observed that the subjunctive does not *deny* (even by implication) that the reason given is the true one. On the contrary, the subjunctive may be used of that which the speaker believes to be the cause of an action, but which he does not wish to *state* positively as such.

INDICATIVE.

Ita fit ut adsint propterea, quod officium sequuntur, taceant autem, idcirco quia periculum vitant, so they are here because they are thus performing a duty, but they are silent for the reason that they shun danger (Cic., *Rosc. Am.*, 1, 1).

Quod spirātis, quod vocem mittitis, quod formās hominum habētis, indignantur, they are angry because you breathe and speak and have the shapes of men (Liv., iv., 3, 8).

Quō quidem etiam magis sum exercitus, nōn quia mul-

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Laudat Africānum Panaetius, quod fuerit abstinentēs, Panaetius praises Africanus for his self-control (Cic., *Off.*, ii., 22, 76).

An paenitet vōs quod salvom exercitum tradūxerim? do ye regret my having brought the army over in safety? (Caes., *B. C.*, ii., 32).

Bene maiōrēs accubitiōnem epulārem amicōrum, quia vītae coniūctiōnem habēret, convīvium nōmināvērunt, our ancestors did well in giving to the reclining of friends together at a banquet the name “convivium,” a living together, from

* *Quod* is much commoner than *quia* or *quoniam*, especially with the subjunctive.

tīs dēbeō, sed quia saepe concurrunt, etc., therefore I am even more exercised, not because I am indebted to many people, but because there often come together, etc. (Cic., *Planc.*, 32, 78).

Vōs, Quirītēs, quoniam iam nox est, in vestra tēcta discēdite, do you, fellow citizens, since the night is now come, depart to your houses (Cic., *Cat.*, iii., 12, 29).

its involving a community of life (Cic., *Sen.*, 13, 45).

Rēgnō nōn aequō animō carēbās; est autem impudēns lūctus maerōre sē cōficiētis, quod imperāre nōn liceat līberīs, you did not bear with calmness the loss of power. But his grief is shameless who consumes himself with sadness because he may not have sway over freemen (Cic., *Tūsc.*, iii., 12, 26).

Iactātum in condiciōnibus nēquīquam dē Tarquiniīs in rēgnū restituendīs, magis quia id negāre ipse nequīverat Tarquiniīs, quam quod negātum irī sibi ab Rōmānīs ignōrāret, mention was made in the terms — though to no purpose — of restoring the Tarquins to the throne, more because he had himself been unable to refuse that to the Tarquins, than because he did not know well enough that the Romans would reject the proposition (Līv., ii., 13, 3).

520. *Dīcō, putō*, etc., are sometimes put in the subjunctive in a causal clause, when the reason is really contained in an infinitive dependent upon them. Thus:—

Cum enim Hannibalis permīssū exisset dē castrīs, rediit paulō post, quod sē oblītum nēsciō quid dīceret, for when he had gone out from the camp with Hannibal's permission, he returned a little later because, as he said, he had forgotten something (Cic., *Off.*, i., 13, 40); *quī istinc veniunt, superbiam tuam accūsant, quod negent tē percontantibus respondēre*, those who come from there criticise your arrogance because, as they say, you do not answer people who question you (Cic., *Fam.*, vii., 16, 3); *ex hīs Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complēvērunt, quod sē suō nōmine atque arbitriō cum Rōmānīs bellum gestūrōs dīcerent*, of these the Bellovacī did

not fill out their contingent, because, as they said, they were going to fight with the Romans on their own account and under their own direction (Caes., *B. G.*, vii., 75).

521. The subjunctive is used with *nōn quod* and *nōn quō*, meaning “not that” (not because), negative *nōn quod nōn*, *nōn quō nōn*, *nōn quīn* (not but that).^{*} Thus: —

Etsi nōn idcirco eōrum ūsum dimiseram, quod ūs succēnsērem sed quod eōrum mē subpudēbat, although I had not given up their intimacy because I was angry with them but because I was rather ashamed of them (Cic., *Fam.*, ix., 1, 2); *nōn quō meū quidem iam intersit . . . sed, etc.*, not that it makes a difference to me any longer . . . but, etc. (Cic., *dē Ōr.*, ii., 18, 74); *etsi eō tē adhūc cōsiliō ūsum intellegō, ut id reprehendere nōn audeam, nōn quīn ab eō ipse dissentiam, sed quod eā tē sapientiā esse iūdicō*, although I see that you have thus far adopted a course which I should not venture to criticise, not that I do not myself hold a different view, but because I have such confidence in your wisdom (Cic., *Fam.*, iv., 7, 1).

For *quod* = “the fact that,” introducing substantive clauses, see 540, 4.

Clauses giving the Thought of Another.

522. The subjunctive is used to represent the thing said in a subordinate clause as something in the mind of a person other than the speaker or writer, — generally the subject of the main clause (implied indirect discourse). Thus: —

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset, mihi dōnāvit, Paetus gave me all the books which his brother had left [*i. e.*, he was influenced to give them by the fact that his

^{*} *Nōn quia*, *nōn quia nōn*, are also used, but are very rare in classical Latin. Occasionally all of these conjunctions, except *nōn quō*, *nōn quō nōn*, are found with an indicative, thus marking the reason distinctly as the actual one.

brother, etc.] (Cic., *Att.*, ii., 1, 12); *Dārīus, dum ipse abes-*
set, pontis cūstōdēs relīquit prīncipēs, quōs sēcum ex Iōniā
dūxerat, Darius left as guards of the bridge while he should be
 absent, chieftains whom he had brought with him from Ionia;
Āgēsilaus multō glōriōsius dūxit, sī īnstitūtīs patriae pārū-
isset quam sī bellō superāssset Asiā, Agesilaus thought
 it a much more glorious thing if he obeyed the established
 laws of his country than if he conquered Asia in war (cf. *Nep.*,
Āgēs., 4).

Subjunctive by Attraction.

523. A clause depending upon a subjunctive (or an infinitive), and denoting something which may be regarded as an integral part of the thought expressed in the clause on which it depends, generally takes the subjunctive, though, except for such dependence, it would take the indicative. Thus:—

Mōs est Athēnīs laudārī in cōntiōne eōs, quī sint in proe-
liīs interfectī, it is customary at Athens for a eulogy to be
 delivered in the public assembly over those who have been
 killed in battle (Cic., *Ōr.*, 44, 151); *in Hortēnsiō memoria*
fuit tanta, ut, quae sēcum commentātus esset, ea sine scrīptō
verbīs eīsdem redderet, quibus cōgitāvisset, Hortensius had
 such a powerful memory, that without having written them
 down he could give expression to the things he had turned over
 in his mind, using the same words in which he had thought
 them (cf. Cic., *Brūt.*, 88, 301); *fīēbat ut Alcibiadēs omnium*
oculōs, quotiēnsūmque in pūblicum prōdīsset, ad sē con-
verteret, Alcibiades used to attract the gaze of all the people
 every time he went out.

NOTE. The uses of the subjunctive given in the last two paragraphs (522 and 523) are merely varieties of some of the more general uses treated above. In many cases they might be explained as Characteristic subjunctives. It is, however, worth while to put them into separate categories, because the considerations given show the reason why the subjunctive is chosen in the given case, while in cases otherwise similar, but in which these considerations are not present, the indicative is often found where a Characteristic subjunctive might be expected.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

The following points in the use of the tenses in subjunctive clauses should be observed : —

524. When the thing said has really the nature of an occurrence (although it is expressed, as far as the mood goes, simply as an idea), the tenses of the subjunctive mark practically * the same differences of time as the tenses of the indicative.

a. This is the case with —

- (1.) Clauses of Result.
- (2.) Temporal Clauses (and those developed from them).
- (3.) Clauses of Concession, with *quamvis*, *licet*, etc.
- (4.) The constructions of Indirect Discourse. Thus : —

Sōcratēs tam sapiēns erat ut hodiē quoque honōrētur, Socrates was so wise that he is honored even to-day ; *tam ācritēr pūgnāvērunt ut paene omnēs occīderentur*, they fought so desperately that nearly all were slain ; *haec verba ita excellentia sunt ut deō alicui tribuerentur*, these words are so admirable that they used to be attributed to some god.

Cum Athēnīs essem, Zēnōnem saepe audiēbam, when I was at Athens I often heard Zeno.

Hōc dīcit quod vērū sit, he says this because it is, as he thinks, true.

525. But in the various constructions of indirect discourse, if the word upon which a subjunctive depends refers to past time, the subjunctive is regularly drawn into the same time (*i. e.*, is made imperfect or pluperfect). Thus : —

Tum ostendit quanta esset vīs cōscientiae, then he showed

* In these uses the subjunctive has lost its modality and gained in tense quality (as has been said in 483, c, with the note before and after), but, scientifically speaking, this exchange was never quite complete enough to make the tense quality of this mood absolutely identical with that of the indicative.

how great the power of consciousness of guilt is; *hīs mōs erat omnēs quī ad insulam ipsōrum accēssissent statim interficī*, these people had the custom of immediately killing all who approached their island; *laudābat Africānum Panaetius quod abstinēns esset*, Panaetius used to praise Africanus for his self-control.

NOTE. This tendency arises, perhaps, from a desire for symmetry of expression. The same thing is occasionally shown in dependent indicative clauses (see 470, 3), and is at the bottom of the so-called subjunctive by attraction. A similar attraction of tense occurs in English also, though not with the same regularity as in Latin. See the second example above. Also compare with each other the two forms in which each of the following sentences may be expressed: —

That battle showed what unaided valor CAN do.

That battle showed what unaided valor COULD do.

If he were here, he would do what the occasion DEMANDS.

If he were here, he would do what the occasion DEMANDED.

526. When the thing said is not thought of as an occurrence at all, but only as an idea in the mind of the speaker or writer, the primary tenses of the subjunctive are used in speaking of a present (or future) situation, the secondary tenses in speaking of a past situation. The perfect and pluperfect differ from the present and imperfect only in their implication of *completed* action.

a. This is the case with: —

(1.) Subjunctives in Independent Sentences.*

(2.) Conditional clauses * (including Concessions and Comparisons).

(3.) Clauses of Purpose (whether pure purpose or substantive clauses).

Thus, *haud facile discernās*, like the English “you cannot easily tell,” applies to a present situation; *haud facile discernerēs*, like “you could not easily tell,” applies to a past situation. So, *hunc librum tibi dō, ut eum legās*, I give you this

* The use of the imperfect subjunctive to denote a wish or a supposition unfulfilled in present time is only an apparent exception, and has been sufficiently treated in 473, a, and 477, a.

book to read, indicates a present purpose; *hunc librum tibi dedī, ut eum legerēs*, implies a past purpose (i. e., what was the purpose at the time of giving).

NOTE. In these uses, as there is no question of the *occurrence* of anything, there is no definite time relation to the moment of speaking or writing, as when the indicative is used, or as there is (by implication) in the cases treated under 524, and the mood quality of the subjunctive is much more marked than its tense quality.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

527. The IMPERATIVE MOOD is used to express directly *commands, requests, and advice*. Thus: —

Hūc ades, come here (Verg., *Ecl.*, 2, 45).

Nōsce tē, know thyself (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 22, 52).

Aequam mementō servāre mentem, remember to keep an unruffled mind (Hor., *Carm.*, ii., 3, 1).

a. The negative is *nē* for “not,” *nēve* for “nor” or “and not.” *Nōn* and *neque* are rare, and occur chiefly in poetry.

b. The future imperative expresses the command, etc., more mildly than the present. But for the missing present of *sciō*, *meminī*, and of *habeō* meaning “think,” the future forms are used — *scītō*, *scītōte*, *mementō*, *mementōte*, *habētō*, *habētōte*.

c. The third person of the future occurs only in laws and wills.

d. *Fac*, *fac ut*, *cūrā ut*, are used with a subjunctive to express a command more strongly; *velim*, *nōlim*, *mālim* (cf. 473, c, and 491), to express one less strongly, than the imperative. The future indicative is also sometimes used, as in English.

e. *Quīn*, why not, with the present indicative, is sometimes equivalent to a command; as, *quīn accipis?* = take it (lit., why don't you take it?) (Ter., *Heaut.*, 832).

528. PROHIBITIONS are expressed by the present imperative only in poetry, by the future imperative only in laws, wills, precepts, etc. Thus: —

Nē crēde colōrī, trust not the color (Verg., *Ecl.*, 2, 17);

hominem mortuom in urbe nē sepelitō nēve ūritō, give neither burial nor cremation to the dead within the city (Laws of the XII. Tables).

529. Otherwise PROHIBITIONS take : —

(1.) In the second person : —

a. Nē, with the *perfect* subjunctive (for a particular case only) ; as, *hōc nē fēceris, Mārce*, do not do this thing, Marcus.

b. Nē, with the *present* subjunctive (for a general case only) ; as, *hōc nē faciās*, do this not (*i. e.*, nobody must do it).

c. Nōlī, with the infinitive ; as, *nōlī oblīvīscī*, do not forget.

d. Cavē, with the subjunctive ; as, *cavē fēstīnēs*, do not hurry.

e. Fac nē, with the subjunctive (in colloquial speech). Thus : *fac nē quid aliud cūrēs, nisi ut convalēscās*, do not attend to anything but the recovery of your health (Cic., *Fam.*, xvi., 11, 1).

(2.) In the third person : —

Nē, with the *present* subjunctive ; as, *dōnīs impīi nē plācāre audeant deōs*, let not the wicked presume to try to propitiate the gods with gifts.

Compare also 472, 2, and 472, *a, b*.

INFINITIVE.

NOTE. The INFINITIVE has the nature of a *noun*, in that it may be used as the subject or object of various verbs, or in apposition with a pronoun ; it has the nature of a *verb*, in that it admits distinctions of tense, is modified by *adverbs*, not *adjectives*, and like the finite verb governs oblique cases.

SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE.

530. The SUBJECT of an infinitive is put in the *accusative*. Thus : —

Ad rem pūblicam pertinet mē cōservārī, it concerns the interests of the state that I should be saved (Cic.) ; *vidēbat id nōn posse fierī*, he saw that it could not be done (Nep.).

a. But the infinitive is sometimes used in lively narration instead of the (historical) perfect indicative, and then its subject is in the NOMINATIVE (*historical infinitive*). Thus:—

Interim cottidiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar daily demanded grain of the Haeduans (Caes., *B. G.*, 1, 16); *nōs pavidī trepidāre metū*, panic-stricken we hurry about in alarm (Verg., *Ae.*, 2, 685).

INFINITIVE AS SUBJECT.

531. The infinitive, either *with* or *without* a subject, may be the SUBJECT of a verb. Thus:—

Difficile est amicitiam manēre, sī ā virtūte dēfēceris, it is hard for friendship to abide, if you fall from virtue (Cic., *Am.*, 11, 37).

Māius dēdecus est parta amittere quam omnīnō nōn parāvisse, it is a greater disgrace to lose what you have acquired than not to have made any acquisitions at all (Sall., *Iug.*, 31, 17); *numquam igitur est ūtile peccāre*, to do wrong is therefore never expedient (Cic., *Off.*, iii., 15, 64).

a. The infinitive is used as subject chiefly with *est*, *erat*, etc., and a predicate noun or adjective, or with certain impersonal verbs, such as *libet*, *licet*, *oportet*, *vidētur*, *piget*, *pudet*, *placet*, *praestat*, *rēfert*, *interest*, *convenit*, *fugit*, *iuvat*, etc.*

b. The infinitive may of course also be equivalent to a predicate nominative; as:—

Impūne quaelibet facere, id est rēgem esse, to do with impunity whatever one will, that is to be king (Sall.).

c. When the infinitive used with *licet* and such words has a predicate adjective or noun with it, this is generally put in the *dative*, whether there is a dative of indirect object ex-

* With verbs like *oportet*, which, strictly speaking, have the subject involved in the verb idea (*i. e.*, impersonals in the narrowest sense), the infinitive is in origin not a *subject* infinitive but a *complementary* infinitive (see 532). These infinitives, however, became so fused with the subject infinitive, and thereby lost their resemblance to other complementary infinitives so thoroughly, that it seems most practical to treat them as is here done.

pressed with *licet* or not ; but sometimes it is put in the *accusative*. Thus : —

Licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclē, it was in Themistocles' power to be inactive (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 15, 33) ; *sibi vītā filiae suā cārīōrem fuisse, sī liberāe ac pudicāe vivere licitum fuisset*, [he said] that his daughter's life would have been dearer to him than his own, if she could have lived in freedom and virtue (Līv., iii., 50, 6).

Quod sī civī Rōmānō licet esse Gādītānum, and if a Roman citizen may be [also] a citizen of Gades (Cic., *Balb.*, 12, 29).

For the subjunctive with impersonals, see 494, a, and 497.

COMPLEMENTARY INFINITIVE.

532. The infinitive *without a subject* is used with several classes of words which require a further action of the same subject to complete the meaning (complementary infinitive). Thus : —

Hōc quēō dicere, this I can say (Cic., *Sen.*, 10, 32) ; *haec vitāre cupimus*, this we wish to avoid (Cic.) ; *poētās omnīnō nōn cōnor attingere*, I do not attempt to touch the poets at all (Cic., *dē Ūr.*, ii., 14, 61).

a. Such are verbs denoting ABILITY, OBLIGATION, INTENTION, or ENDEAVOR ; also verbs meaning BEGIN, CONTINUE, CEASE, ABSTAIN, LEARN (TO),* REMEMBER (TO),* UNDERSTAND, DETERMINE, DARE, BE AFRAID (TO),* HESITATE, BE WONT.

b. If a complementary infinitive has a predicate noun or adjective, this agrees in case with the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends. Thus : —

Audē sapiēns esse, dare to be a philosopher ; *solet trīstis vidērī*, he is apt to seem sad ; *iubet eum virum esse audēre*, he bids him dare to be a man. Cf. also 329, b.

For the subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 484 ff.

For the infinitive *with a subject* after verbs of wishing, etc., see 533, 3.

* In the meanings *learn, remember, be afraid, that* (something) *is so and so*, these verbs of course take other constructions. (See 515 ff. ; also 490, and 492).



INFINITIVE AS OBJECT.

533. The infinitive *with a subject* is used as the OBJECT of certain classes of verbs. Thus : —

(1.) With verbs of SAYING, THINKING, KNOWING, PERCEIVING (*verba sentiendī et dēclārandī*) ; as : —

Dicit sē crās ventūrum esse, he says he will come to-morrow ; *centuriōnēs nihil temere agendum esse exīstimābant*, the centurions thought that nothing ought to be done inconsiderately ; *audīvī tē vēnisse*, I heard you had come ; *senti igitur animus sē . . . suū vī, nōn aliēnū, movērī*, the mind therefore perceives that its activity is from its own force, not from an outside force (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 23, 55).

(2.) With verbs of DETERMINING, DECREEEING, and the like ; as : —

Metellus statuit aliō mōre bellum gerendum esse, Metellus determined that the war must be carried on in another fashion.

(3.) With verbs of WISHING (mostly when a new subject is introduced), and with *iubeō* and *vetō*. Thus : —

Hōc velim intellegī, I should like to have this understood (Cic.) ; *lēgātī quod erant appellātī superbius, Corinthum patrēs vestrī . . . exstinctum esse voluērunt*, your fathers insisted on the destruction of Corinth because their ambassadors had been addressed rather arrogantly (Cic., *Lēg. Mān.*, 5, 11) ; *mē amārī volō*, I wish to be loved ; *iubet nōs Pjthius Apollō nōscere nōsmet ipsōs*, the Pythian Apollo bids us know ourselves ; *lēgātōs Caesar discēdere vetuerat*, Caesar had forbidden the ambassadors to depart (Caes., *B. G.*, 2, 20).

(4.) With verbs of EMOTION and FEELING ; as : —

Gaudeō tē salvom vēnisse, I am glad that you have arrived safely ; *Antōnius sē similem esse Catilīnae glōriārī solēbat*, Antonius used to boast that he was like Catiline ; *multī peccāsse sē nōn anguntur, obiūrgārī molestē ferunt*, many

people are not distressed that they have done wrong, but take it ill to be found fault with; *mīror* * *tē ad mē nihil scribere*, I wonder that you do not write to me at all.

(5.) With verbs of HOPING, PROMISING, VOWING, THREATENING, SWEARING, the *future* infinitive is regularly used. Thus: —

Spērō tē id factūrum esse, I hope you will do so; *prōmīsit sē ventūrum esse*, he promised to come; *tōtam sē urbem dēlētūrum esse minātur*, he threatens to destroy the entire town; *numquam amīcum sē Rōmānīs futūrum esse iūrābat*, he swore he would never be a friend to the Romans.

NOTE. This use of the infinitive is the regular construction of indirect discourse. (See 515 ff.)

For the subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 484 ff.

INFINITIVE WITH *DĪCOR*, *VIDEOR*, *FERTUR*, ETC.

534. Several verbs, which in the active take an accusative and infinitive, are used personally in the passive rather than impersonally,† the subject-accusative of the infinitive thus becoming the subject-nominative of the finite verb. Thus: —

Dīcor vir probus esse, I am said to be an upright man; *vetāmur hōc facere*, we are forbidden to do this; *videor diem illum vidēre*, I seem to see that day; *Numae rēgnū pācātum esse trāditur*, Numa's reign is said to have been a peaceful one.

a. A predicate word with the infinitive in this use is of course nominative, as in the first example.

b. In poetry, sometimes a predicate word is put in the nominative (by a Greek idiom) after an active verb of saying; as: —

Phasēlus ille, quem vidētis, hospitēs, ait fuisse nāvium celerrimus, that skiff you see, there yonder, friends, doth say, she was of boats the swiftest in her day (Cat., 4, 1).

* Cf. also substantive *quod* clauses, 540, 4.

† The impersonal construction also occurs, but chiefly with the gerundive or perfect participle.

OTHER USES OF THE INFINITIVE.

535. The infinitive (generally with the interrogative *ne*) is used in EXCLAMATIONS. Thus: —

Mēne inceptō dēsistere victam, I, defeated, abandon my undertaking! (Verg., *Aen.*, 1, 37); *quemquamne hominem in animō instituere*, that any man should take the determination! (Ter., *Ad.*, 38).

Cf. the subjunctive, with main verb omitted, 482, *d*, and 492, *c*.

536. The infinitive retains its original use of expressing a PURPOSE in a few expressions. Thus: —

(1.) With *habeō*, *dō*, *ministrō*, in a few passages; as: —

Tantum habeō pollicērī, I have so much to promise (Cic., *Fam.*, i., 5, *a*, 3).

(2.) With *parātus* and *suētus* (*īnsuētūs*), used as adjectives. Thus: —

Omnia perpetī parātus, ready to endure all; *īnsuētus vērā audīre*, unaccustomed to hear the truth (Līv., xxxi., 18, 3).

a. In poetry a great many adjectives are used with the infinitive, where we might rather expect a gerund or a subjunctive clause. Thus: —

Cēdere nēscius, unknowing how to yield (Hor., *Carm.*, i., 6, 6); *avidī committere pūgnam*, eager for the fray (Ovid., *M.*, 5, 75); *certa morī*, bent upon death (Verg., *Aen.*, 4, 564); *dignus amārī*, worthy to be loved (Verg., *Ecl.*, 5, 89).

b. A rare case of the use of the infinitive as a noun is: *ut inter optimē valēre et gravissimē aegrōtāre nihil prōrsus dicerent interesse*, so that they said there was absolutely no difference between being perfectly well and most seriously ill (Cic., *Fīn.*, ii., 13, 43). Cf. *beātē vīvere vestrum quāle est!* your living happily, — what does it amount to?

c. The infinitive of purpose depending upon a verb is occasionally used by the poets; as: —

Prōteus pecus ēgit altōs vīsere montēs, Proteus drove his herds to visit the high mountains (Hor., *Carm.*, i., 2, 7).

OMISSION OF THE INFINITIVE.

537. *Esse* (and *fuisse*),* especially as elements of the future active and perfect passive infinitives, are often omitted, particularly after verbs of saying or thinking; as: —

Vos cōgnōvī fortēs [esse], I have found you brave; *adulēscētī mōrem gestum [esse] oportuit*, the young gentleman should have been humored (Ter., *Ad.*, 214); *prōmīsīt sē ventūrum [esse]*, he promised to come.

a. In a relative clause, an infinitive is sometimes omitted when it can be supplied from the verb of the main clause; as: —

Quōs voluit omnēs interfēcīt [sc. interficere], he killed all whom he chose [*sc.* to kill].

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

538. In the constructions of indirect discourse (real or implied), the tenses of the infinitive represent the action as past, present, or future, with reference to the word of saying. They correspond to the tenses of the indicative as follows: —

Pres. infin. = pres. indic.

Perf. “ = past “ (imperf., perf., or pluper.).

Fut. “ = fut. “

a. With *meminī* (and occasionally other words) the present infinitive is used to represent an imperfect indicative; as, *hōc mē meminī dīcere*, I remember saying this, — thus denoting a recollection of the *progress* of an action. If the *mere fact* is remembered, the perfect infinitive is used; as, *meministis mē ita distribuissē causam*, you remember I divided the case in this way.

b. Instead of the future infinitive is often used *futūrum esse ut* (or *fore ut*) with a subjunctive, — always when the given verb has no future participle. Thus: —

Numquam putāvī fore ut supplex ad tē venīrem, I never

* *Fore* is less commonly omitted.

thought I should come to you as a suppliant (Cic., *Att.*, xvi., 16 c, 10); *dixit* futūrum esse ut pōscerent, he said they would demand.

539. In other constructions than those of indirect discourse, only the present infinitive is common. The perfect is used to denote COMPLETED ACTION.*

a. With verbs of WISHING, OBLIGATION, etc., the perfect passive is found sometimes where the present would seem more logical; as:—

Patrēs vestrī Corinthum extinctum esse voluērunt, your fathers insisted that Corinth should be destroyed (Cic., *Lēg. Mān.*, 5, 11).

b. In early Latin, and in the poets and later writers, the perfect active is also thus used with various verbs. Thus:—

Tendentēs opācō Pēlion imposuisse Olympō, struggling to pile Pelion upon shady Olympus (Hor., *Carm.*, iii., 4, 52); *bacchātūr vātēs, māgnū sī pectere possit excussisse deum*, the prophetess rushes wildly about to try if she can shake off the divine influence from her soul (Verg., *Aen.*, 6, 78).

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

540. There are four classes of substantive clauses, as follows:—

(1.) Subjunctive clauses introduced by *ut*, *nē*, *quīn*, etc. (developed from purpose or result). (Cf. 484 ff.)

(2.) Infinitives with subject accusative (indirect discourse). (Cf. 515 ff. and 533 ff.)

(3.) Indirect questions. (Cf. 518.)

(4.) Indicative clauses introduced by *quod* = “the fact that” (a variety of causal clauses); as:—

Māgnū beneficium est nātūrae, quod necesse est morī, it is a great natural blessing that we must die.

* Especially with expressions like *satis habeo*, *pudet*, *contentus sum*, *melius erit*, etc.

Which of these kinds of substantive clauses should be used with any given verb can generally be determined by considering the nature of the thing said, as follows : —

541. (1.) If the thing said in the substantive clause has the nature of a STATEMENT (spoken or thought), an infinitive clause is used ; as : —

Nōn putābant dē tālī virō sūspiciōnibus oportēre iūdicārī, such a man ought not to be judged [they thought] by suspicious circumstances.

(2.) If the thing said involves a REASON or EXPLANATORY *fact*, the substantive clause takes *quod* ; as : —

Mihī quidem videntur hominēs hāc rē māximē bēluis praestāre quod loquī possunt, to me, at least, men seem to have the advantage over the brutes in this respect chiefly, that they can speak (Cic.).

(3.) If the thing said is a question, the substantive clause, as an indirect question, takes the subjunctive ; as : —

Quae esset brevissima via quaesivit, he asked what was the shortest way.

(4.) If the thing said has not the nature of any of these three things, the substantive clause takes the subjunctive with *ut*, *nē*, etc. ; as : —

Fēcī nōn invītus ut prōdessem multis rogātū tuō, I have been not unwilling to contribute to the advantage of many people at your request (Cic., *Am.*, 1, 4) ; *ad Appī Claudī senectūtem accēdēbat etiam ut caecus esset*, to the old age of Appius Claudius even blindness was added (Cic., *Sen.*, 6, 16).

NOTE. Verbs which in their original use take some particular form of substantive clause often acquire shades of meaning which admit other forms. The possible uses with any given verb are best learned from the dictionary, and by observing the practice of the Latin writers.

PARTICIPLES.

In the use of the Latin participles the following points should be noted : —

542. Participles are followed by the same cases and constructions as their verbs. Thus : —

Quīdam, poēta nōminātus, some one, called a poet.

Catulōrum oblīta leaena, a lioness forgetful of her whelps (Verg., *G.*, 3, 245).

Faventēs rēbus Karthāginiēnsium, favoring the interests of the Carthaginians.

Cāsūs abiēs vīsūra marīnōs, a fir tree [which is] to see the chances of the deep (Verg., *G.*, 2, 68).

Hōrum operā saepe antea ūsus, having used their services often before.

543. The PRESENT participle denotes something going on at the same time as the action of the verb with which it is connected. Thus : —

Turnum fugientem haec terra vidēbit, this land shall see Turnus fleeing (Verg.).

a. The action denoted by a Latin present participle must belong to *exactly* the same time as the main action. Only certain participles denoting motion — *veniēns*, *adveniēns*, etc. — are used with that kind of *loose* reference to present time which the English participle often has. Thus we say, “hearing this sound, I ran quickly,” where the Roman could not use a present participle, but would take some other form of expression ; as, *quō sonitū auditō currēbam celeriter*, or *cum hunc sonitum audīvissem*, etc.

b. The present participle depending upon a verb of saying or perceiving is almost equivalent to an infinitive, but is a more lively form of expression. See *fugientem* in the example above.

Cf. *Laelium et Scīpiōnem facimus admīrantīs*, I represent Laelius and Scipio expressing their wonder (Cic., *Sen.*, 1, 3).

544. The PERFECT participle denotes something already finished at the time indicated by the verb with which it is connected. Thus:—

Quī, mīssus ab Argīs, . . . Italā cōnsēderat urbe, who, sent from Argos, . . . had settled in the Italian city (Verg., *Ae.*, 10, 779).

a. The perfect participle of many deponent verbs has almost the force of a present participle. So, commonly, *arbitrātus*, *ratus*, *solitus*, *ūsus*, *veritus*. Also *ausus*, *commorātus*, *fīsus*, *secūtus*, and others.

b. The perfect participle of deponent verbs is sometimes used in a *passive* sense; as, *experta virtūs*, valor that has been tried.

NOTE. Except in the case of deponent verbs, an active perfect participle has to be supplied in Latin by changing the construction to the passive (Ablative Absolute), or by a temporal or causal clause (especially a clause introduced by *cum*, *postquam*, or *dum*).

545. The FUTURE participle denotes something which is to take place after the time indicated by the verb with which it is connected. Thus:—

Magna pars hominum est, quae nāvigātūra dē tempestāte nōn cōgitat, there is a large part of mankind who when on the point of taking a voyage do not think about the state of the weather.

a. The future participle thus agreeing with a noun or pronoun is rare in good prose. In the poets and later writers (including Livy) it frequently denotes *likelihood*, *intention*, or *purpose*. Thus:—

An sēsē mediōs moritūrus in hostēs īnferat, or shall he plunge into the midst of the foe, to meet his death (Verg., *Ae.*, 9, 398).

546. The present and perfect participles are often used as attributive adjectives (or as nouns), and can even be compared, like other adjectives. Thus:—

Urbs flōrentissima, a most flourishing city.

Vir spectātus, a man proved worthy.

Male parta male dilābuntur, ill gotten gains slip away in the same bad fashion (Cic., *Phil.*, ii., 27, 65).

Quō parātor ad ūsum forēsem prōptiorque esse possim, that I may be better prepared and more ready for forensic practice (Cic., *Caec.*, 13, 41).

547. A present or a perfect participle is also often used in the sense of a predicate, where in English a clause (or phrase) would be found denoting *an accompanying circumstance, a cause or hindrance*, etc. Thus : —

Sanguis in tōtum corpus distribuitur per vēnās in omnēs partēs corporis pertinentēs, the blood is distributed to the whole body, through veins which extend into all parts of the body (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 55, 137); *Caesar explorātis regiōnibus albente caelō omnēs cōpiās castrīs ēdūxit*, Caesar, having reconnoitred the country, led all his forces forth from camp as day was breaking (Caes., *B. C.*, 1, 68).

a. This is the regular use of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (cf. 422), as in the last example.

b. Sometimes a participle is made to agree with a noun, when the participle itself contains the main idea. In English a noun (especially one in “ing”) is used instead of the participle, and its relation to the other noun is expressed by “of.” Thus : —

Hae litterae recitātae māgnū lūctū fēcērunt, the reading of this letter caused great grief (Līv.); *ab conditā urbe ad liberātam*, from the founding of the city to the establishment of the republic [literally, to its freeing] (Līv.).

Cf. also the use of the gerundive (550, especially d).

c. Beside its regular use in forming the compound tenses of the verb (see 211), the perfect participle is sometimes used with *habēō* almost in the sense of the English compound tenses. In Latin, however, the two parts of the expression retain their own force more distinctly than in English, and the use is chiefly confined to words of knowing and the like. Thus : —

Clōdī animum perspectum habēō, I have thoroughly investigated Clodius's state of mind [literally, I hold it in an

investigated condition]. Cf. (Plaut., *Cap.*, 345) *transāctum reddet omne*, he will do the thing up brown [literally, he will return it finished], and (in Terence and Cicero) *mīssum faciō*, I let go, dismiss.

GERUND and GERUNDIVE.

548. (1.) The GERUND is a verbal noun used in the oblique cases with the same force which the infinitive has as subject (or object) of a verb, and governing the cases like any other part of the verb. Its meaning is *active*.

(2.) The GERUNDIVE is a verbal adjective denoting *necessity, propriety, or duty*, or, in the oblique cases, taking the place of the gerund under certain circumstances. In the first of these uses it is *passive*; in the second, though seemingly passive, it is really, like the gerund, *active*.

549. Examples of the use of the gerund are as follows: —

Metus pārendī sibi, fear of obeying him; *parcendō victīs*, by sparing the conquered; *efferior studiō patrēs vestrōs . . . videndī*, I am carried away with a desire to see your fathers (Cic., *Sen.*, 23, 83).

550. Instead of the *gerund* with an object, in the case of transitive verbs the *gerundive* construction is commonly used; *i. e.*, the object is put in the case which the gerund would have had, and the gerundive is made to agree with it. Thus: —

Cōnsilium scribendae epistulae, the purpose of writing a letter (Gerund, *scribendī epistulam*); *ad dēfendendam Rōmam ab oppūgnandā Capuā ducēs Rōmānōs abstrahit*, he draws off the Roman generals from the siege of Capua to the defense of Rome (Gerund, *ad dēfendendum Rōmam ab oppūgnandō Capuam*); *reparandarū classium causā*, for the sake of repairing the fleets (Gerund, *reparandī classēs*).

a. The *gerundive*, rather than the *gerund*, is regularly used with the verbs *utor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, *potior*, *vescor*, which in early times took the accusative where later usage employed the ablative. Thus : —

Quod illa aetās magis ad haec ūtenda (rather than *ad hīs ūtendum*) *idōneast*, because that time of life is better suited to these employments (Ter., *Heaut.*, 133); *iūstitiae fruendae* (rather than *iūstitiā fruendī*) *causā*, for the sake of enjoying justice; *hostēs in spem potiundōrum castrōrum* (rather than *potiundī castrīs*) *vēnerant*, the enemy had come into the hope of getting possession of the camp.

b. If ambiguity would arise (through confusion of the gender) from the use of the *gerundive*, the *gerund* is used. So especially when the object is a *neuter pronoun* or *adjective*. Thus : —

Aliquid faciendī ratiō, a principle of doing something (Cic.); *artem et vērā et falsa diiudicandī*, the art of distinguishing the true and the false (Cic.).

c. The genitive of the *gerund* sometimes occurs with a possessive pronoun agreeing with it, rarely also with a noun depending upon it, where it looks at first sight like a *gerundive* irregularly used. Thus : —

Quoniam tuī videndī est cōpia, since there is an opportunity of seeing you [said of a woman] (Plaut.); *in castra vēnērunt suī pūrgandī causā*, they came to the camp for the sake of excusing themselves [lit., of their own excusing] (Liv.); *nōn vereor nē quis mē haec vestrī adhortandī causā magnificē loquī existimet*, I am not afraid any one will think I exaggerate this to encourage you (Liv., xxi., 41, 1); *exemplōrum eligendī potestās*, the power of [the] choosing [of] examples (Cic.).

d. The *gerund* and *gerundive* represent something as not yet completed or accomplished. If something completed is spoken of, the *perfect participle* must be used. Thus : —

Sūspiciō rēgnī adpetendī, a suspicion of aiming at royal power; *sūspiciō rēgnī adpetītī*, a suspicion of having aimed at royal power; *ante conditam condendamve urbem*, be-

fore the founding of the city was accomplished or planned (Līv., i., *praef.*, 6).

CASES OF THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

551. The GENITIVE of the gerund or gerundive with *causā* (or *grātiā*) * and the ACCUSATIVE of the gerund or gerundive with *ad* are often used to denote *purpose*. Thus : —

Postrēmō [*Catilīna*] *dissimulandī causā vel suī expūrgandī* . . . *in senātum vēnit*, finally, for the purpose of hiding [the real state of the case] or of clearing himself, Catiline came into the senate (Sall., *Cat.*, 31, 4) ; *ad castra faciendā*, for the purpose of making a camp (Cic.).

a. The DATIVE of the gerundive is used to express a *purpose*, after names of offices, and words denoting election or appointment. Thus : —

Decemvirī lēgibus scribendīs, a commission of ten for writing out the laws ; *triumvirōs agrō dandō creat*, he appoints a committee of three for assigning land (Līv., 3, 1, 6).

NOTE. Otherwise the dative of both gerund and gerundive is rare.

b. The ACCUSATIVE of the gerund and gerundive (except in the use treated under 552, 2) is found only with the prepositions *ad* and (occasionally) *ante*, *in* or *ob*, or (in verse) *inter*. See above examples.

c. The ABLATIVE of the gerund and gerundive is used with prepositions, and to denote *cause*, *manner*, or *instrument*. Thus : —

Dē cōsulātū petendō, in regard to being a candidate for the consulship ; *currendō et lūctandō exercēre*, to exercise by running and wrestling.

OTHER USES OF THE GERUNDIVE.

552. Besides forming the periphrastic conjugation (see 229, 2), to denote what *must be done*, or *ought to be*

* These nouns are almost always placed *after* the genitive because the genitive is almost always the more emphatic of the two words (see 585).

done, and serving as a substitute for the gerund (see 550 and 551), the gerundive is chiefly used as follows : —

(1.) As an attributive adjective, meaning “worthy of,” and the like. Thus : —

[*Prudentia*] *quae est rerum expetendarum fugiendarumque scientia*, prudence, which is the knowledge of things to be desired and things to be shunned (Cic., *Off.*, i., 43, 153); *admiranda frugalitas*, an admirable frugality (Cic., *Deiot.*, 9, 26).

(2.) As a predicate adjective denoting PURPOSE, after words meaning to *give, deliver, agree for, undertake, receive*, and some others. Thus : —

Testamentum tibi tradet legendum, he will hand his will to you to read (Hor., *Sat.*, ii., 5, 51); *attribuit nos trucidandos Cethegō*, he assigned us to Cethegus to be butchered (Cic., *Cat.*, iv., 6, 13).

(3.) The neuter is sometimes used impersonally (especially in early Latin and the poets) governing a case. Thus : —

Nunc pacem orandum, nunc . . . arma reponendum et bellum exitiale cavendum, now we must beg for peace, now lay aside arms and avoid murderous war (Sil.); *cum suo cuique iudicio sit utendum*, since each must use his own judgment; *quam nobis quoque ingrediendum sit*, [a road] which we too must travel (Cic., *Sen.*, 2, 6).

SUPINE.

NOTE. The supine is found in a comparatively small number of verbs. For a list of them see Draeger's *Historische Syntax*, vol. ii., p. 859 ff.

553. The SUPINE is a verbal noun with *active* meaning, used only in the accusative and ablative, as follows : —

554. The ACCUSATIVE of the supine is used : —

(1.) To form the future passive infinitive with *iri* (see 211, a). Thus : —

At Karthāginem captum irī, he says Carthage is going to be (or will be) taken.

NOTE. Here *irī* is used impersonally, and the apparent *subject* of the infinitive is really the *object* of the supine.

(2.) With verbs of motion (expressed or implied), to denote PURPOSE. Thus :—

Lēgātī vērērunt questum iniūriās et rēs repetitum, ambassadors came to complain of wrongs and demand restitution (Liv.); *cubitum discēssimus*, we parted for the night [lit., to lie down] (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, vi., 10, 10); *puerum misit rogātum, quid vellet*, he sent a boy to ask what he wished.

a. So metaphorically, *dare nūptum, collocāre nūptum*, give in marriage, *sēssum recipere*, offer a seat, *perditum ire*, go to ruin.

b. The accusative of the supine is especially rare with an object, as in the first example above.

555. The ABLATIVE of the supine is used in classical Latin only as an ablative of specification (see 412), chiefly with the adjectives *facilis, difficilis; iūcundus, iniūcundus; honestus, turpis; crēdibilis, incrēdibilis; mirābilis, ūtilis, optimus*; and with the nouns *fās, nefās, opus*. Thus :—

Rēm . . . factū facilem, a thing easy to do (Ter., *Heaut.*, 704); *mirābile dictū*, wonderful to tell (Verg., *G.*, 2, 30); *incrēdibile memorātū*, incredible to relate (Sall., *Cat.*, 6, 2); *hōc fās est dictū*, this is a right thing to say (Cic., *Tūsc.*, v., 13, 38); *dictū opus est*, it must be said (Ter., *Heaut.*, 941).

a. The ablative of the following supines occurs in classical Latin: *audītū, cōgnitū, dictū, factū, intellēctū, inventū, memorātū, scītū, visū*.

b. In Livy and later writers *dignus* and *indignus* occur with the ablative of a supine; as, *indignum relātū*.

c. The gerundive with *ad* is more common with *facilis, difficilis*, and *iūcundus*, and the infinitive is also used; as, *facile est invenire*, it is easy to find. *Dignus* takes *quī* with the

subjunctive in classical Latin, or the ablative of a noun. (Cf. also 536, *a.*)

The Different Constructions of Purpose.

556. The following eight ways of expressing PURPOSE are possible in Latin : —

- (1.) Subjunctive with *ut* or *nē*.
- (2.) “ “ a relative.
- (3.) Gerund (or gerundive) with *ad*.
- (4.) “ “ “ *causā* (*grātiā*).
- (5.) Accusative of the gerundive.
- (6.) Future participle.
- (7.) Supine.
- (8.) Infinitive.

a. Of these the *subjunctive* with *ut* or *quī* is the common and regular construction (for the distinction between *ut* and *quī* see 482, 2, note). The *gerund* and *gerundive* constructions (with *ad* or *causā*) are used only in short expressions, and rarely if the verb of purpose has any further modifier than an object and an adverb of manner. The *gerundive* without *ad* or *causā* is used only with the verbs given under 552, 2. The *future participle* belongs mostly to late Latin, and is said not to occur in Cicero at all. The *supine* is used only as in 554. The *infinitive* is poetical and not common. (Cf. 536.)

ADVERBS.

557. Latin ADVERBS are used, in general, like English adverbs, to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

a. The adverbs in *-ē* and *-ter* (from adjectives of the second and third declensions respectively) are usually adverbs of MANNER; as, *cārē*, dearly; *praeclārē*, nobly; *audācter*, boldly; *leviter*, lightly.

b. The adverbs in *-um* and *-im* (originally accusatives), are usually adverbs of QUANTITY or AMOUNT; as, *multum*, much; *paulum*, a little; *partim*, partly. They therefore modify verbs chiefly.

c. The adverbs in *-ō* (originally ablatives) are usually adverbs of DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE; as, *multō*, by far, much; *paulō*, (by) a little. They therefore modify adjectives and adverbs chiefly.

NOTE 1. The last two classes tend to pass into each other, so that the difference is sometimes so subtle as to seem wholly arbitrary. Cf. *primum*, first (in a series), to begin with, with *primō*, first (in time), in the first place.

NOTE 2. Apparent exceptions to the above are the adverbs of emphatic assertion, *sānē*, *vērō*, *profectō*, *certō*, and others, though generally they are adverbs of manner which have lost their original meanings.

d. Of the words for “so,” *ita* and (more emphatic) *sic* are adverbs of manner, and modify verbs; *tam* is an adverb of degree, and modifies chiefly adjectives and adverbs.

e. *Ut . . . ita*, “as . . . so,” are often equivalent to “although . . . yet” (one member of the comparison being by implication a negative). Thus: —

Ut quiēs certāminum erat, ita ab apparātū operum . . . nihil cēssātum, though there was a cessation of conflict, yet there was no interruption in the construction of fortifications (Liv., xxi., 8, 1).

f. With a word or phrase explaining something said, *ut* is sometimes ambiguous. It may be “seeing that,” giving a reason, or “considering that,” indicating a limitation, and the context has to decide. Thus: —

Epicharmī, acūtī nec īnsulsī hominis, ut Siculī, of Epicharmus, a clever and witty man as [you would expect of] a Sicilian (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 8, 15); *Spurius Maelius . . . ut illīs temporibus praedives*, Spurius Maelius, a very rich man for those times (Liv., iv., 13, 1).

g. Of the words for “not,” *nōn* indicates simple negation, *nē* negatives commands or purposes, and *haud* is used with single words and phrases, especially adjectives and adverbs.

h. In Latin an adjective is sometimes used, characterizing the person who does a thing (especially his state of mind), where English prefers an adverb of manner or order. Thus: —

Itaque fēcī nōn invītus, ut prōdessem multīs tuō rogātū, I

have not unwillingly labored at your request for the benefit of many (Cic., *Am.*, i., 4) ; *quid prūdēns et sciēns ad interitum ruis*, why do you rush to destruction knowingly and with your eyes open ? *hostēs rārī sē ōstendere coepērunt*, the enemy began to show themselves here and there ; *priōrī Remō augurium vēnisse fertur*, an omen is said to have come to Remus first.

i. With words like *prīmus* there is a difference of meaning according as (1) the *adjective* agreeing with the *subject*, or (2) the *adjective* agreeing with the *object*, or (3) the *adverb* is used. Thus : —

Ille prīmus aedem hīc posuit, he was the first to build a temple here.

Ille prīmam aedem hīc posuit, he built the first temple here [some one else may have built another].

Ille primum aedem hīc posuit, he first built a temple here [and then did something else].

PREPOSITIONS.

558. The PREPOSITIONS originally expressed relations of *place*, and then passed into other relations.

A synopsis of their use may be given as follows : —

Prepositions with Accusative.

559. (1.) *Ad*, towards, to (opposite of *ab*). PLACE : *ad urbem īre*, to go to, or towards, the city ; *ad urbem esse*, to be near the city. TIME : *ad senectūtem*, to, or till, old age ; *ad vesperum*, towards evening. NUMBER : *ad mīlia tria*,* towards, or about, three thousand. METAPHORICAL relations : *ad vītā beātā*, towards, or with regard to, a happy life ; *ad tantum bellum*, towards, or for, so great a war ; *ad mē scribere*, to write to me ; *ad oppidum capiendum*, towards, or for the purpose of, taking the town ; *ad voluntātem meam*, according to my wish ; *ad hunc modum sermō est institūtus*, the conversation was started in this fashion.

* In the historians and later writers *ad* is also used as an adverb with numbers. Thus : *ad duōrum milium numerus*, a number of about two thousand (Caes.).

(2.) *Adversus* (less commonly *adversum*) [p. p. of *advertere*; i. e., *ad* and *vertere*, to turn], turned towards, towards, against, facing. PLACE: *adversus aegrum*, opposite the sick man; *adversum speculum*, before the mirror. METAPHORICALLY: *quōnam modō mē gererem adversus Caesarem*, how should I have conducted myself towards Caesar? *adversum lēgem*, against the law; *impetus adversus montem*, an attack against, or upon, the mountain.

(3.) *Ante*, before (opposite of *post*). PLACE (used only with objects at rest): *ante aedīs*, before the house; *ante sē*, before himself; *ante oculōs*, before one's eyes, or face. TIME: *ante hiemem*,* before winter; *ante lūcem*, before daylight. METAPHORICALLY: *ante aliās pulcherrima omnīs*, fair before, or beyond, all others; *ante omnia*, before, or above, all things.

(4.) *Apud*, near (primarily of persons and used only where no motion is implied). *Apud Caesarem*, before Caesar, or at Caesar's house; *hōc est apud Graecōs prope glōriōsius quam Rōmae triumphāsse*, this is almost more glorious among the Greeks than a triumph is at Rome; *bellātum apud Actium*, a battle was fought at Actium; *māgnā apud plēbem grātiā*, of great influence with the commons.

(5.) *Circum* (later also *circā*), around, about. PLACE: *terra circum axem sē convertit*, the earth revolves around its axis (Cic., *Acad.*, ii., 39, 123); *capillus circum caput rēiectus*, hair thrown back about the head; *circum haec loca*, about these places; *circā forum*, about the forum (Quint.); *paucae quae circum illam essent*, the few [attendants] about her (Ter.).

(6.) *Circiter*,† about (very rare of place and mostly used of time). *Circiter merīdiem*, about noon.

(7.) *Citrā* (more rarely *cis*), on this side of (opposite of *ultrā*). PLACE: *citrā Rhēnum*, on this side of the Rhine; *cis Taurum*, this side the Taurus mountain. TIME (post-classical, *cis* also in Plautus): *cis paucōs diēs*, within a few days. METAPHORICALLY (post classical): *citrā virtūtem*, without virtue.

* "Two days before" and similar expressions may be rendered into Latin in either of the following ways: *ante* (prep.) *duōs diēs*; *duōbus ante* (adv.) *diēbus*.

† More common as an adverb.

(8.) *Contrā*, opposite, against. PLACE: *contrā Italiam*, opposite Italy; *contrā Massiliam*, off Marseilles; *contrā medium porticum*, facing the middle of the portico; *contrā hostem fōssam facere*, to make a ditch facing the enemy; *dūcere contrā hostēs*, to lead against the enemy. METAPHORICALLY: *contrā sententiam*, contrary to one's opinion; *coniūratiōnem facere contrā Caesarem*, to make a conspiracy against Caesar.

(9.) *Ergā*, towards (chiefly of feelings towards persons, and generally friendly). *Ergā illum benīgnus*, kindly disposed towards him; *divīna bonitās ergā hominēs*, the divine goodness towards mankind; *odium ergā rēgem*, hatred towards the king; *ergā meam salūtem*, in regard to my safety (Cic.)

(10.) *Extrā*, outside of, beyond (opposite of *intrā*). PLACE: *extrā Peloponnēsum*, outside of the Peloponnesus; *extrā prōvinciam*, beyond the province. METAPHORICALLY: *extrā numerum*, beyond the number; *extrā modum*, beyond bounds; *extrā unum tē*, except you alone.

(11.) *Īnfrā*, on the under side, below (opposite of *suprā*). *Īnfrā oppidum*, below the town; *īnfrā īnfimōs hominēs*, beneath the lowest of mankind (Ter.).

(12.) *Inter*, between, among. *Inter Padum et Alpēs*, between the Po and the Alps; *inter primōs*, among the first; *inter hās turbās*, in the midst of these disturbances; *inter noctem*, during the night.

(13.) *Intrā*, inside of, within (opposite of *extrā*). *Intrā parietēs meōs*, within my walls; *īntrā annōs quīnque*, within five years; *īntrā centum*, less than a hundred.

(14.) *Iūxtā*, close to, near. *Iūxtā eum castra posuit*, he pitched his camp close to him; *iūxtā deōs*, next to the gods; *iūxtā sēditionem*, next thing to an insurrection.

(15.) *Ob* (before, as an obstruction, but mostly used in the metaphorical sense "on account of"). *Mors ob oculōs versāta est*, death danced before his eyes; *ob stultitiā*, on account of, or through, folly; *ob eam rem*, on that account.

(16.) *Penes*, in the possession, power, or hands of. *Penes eōs victōria est*, the victory is with them; *penes rēgem*, in the king's power.

(17.) *Per*, through. PLACE: *per forum ire*, to go through the forum; *per mare*, over the sea. TIME: *per hiemem*, through the winter; *per indūtiās*, during the truce. METAPHORICALLY: *per vōs*, through your means; *per mē licet*, you may, for all I care; *per lūdum*, in sport. IN ASSEVERATIONS: *per deōs*, by the gods; *per tuam fidem*, by your honor.

(18.) *Pōne*, behind (rare in classical Latin). *Pōne mē*, behind me; *pōne castra*, behind the camp.

(19.) *Post*, behind, after (opposite of *ante*). PLACE: *post mē*, behind me; *post montem*, behind the mountain. TIME: *post paucōs diēs*,* after a few days; *post urbem conditam*, after the founding of the city.

(20.) *Praeter*, along by, beyond (most common in the metaphorical meanings "beyond," "except," "contrary to"). *Praeter castra dūcerē*, to march by, or beyond, the camp; *praeter aetātem stultus*, foolish beyond his years; *praeter spem*, contrary to expectation; *praeter imperātūs pecūnias*, besides the money ordered; *nūllī vestītūs praeter pellēs*, no clothing except skins.

(21.) *Prope*, near. *Prope oppidum*, near the town; *prope mē*, near me.

(22.) *Propter*, near (but chiefly in the metaphorical sense "on account of"). *Propter hanc statuam*, near this statue; *propter frīgora*, on account of the cold; *propter mē*, on my account.

(23.) *Secundum*, following, after (participial form from *sequor*). PLACE: *ite secundum mē*, come after, or behind, me; *secundum mare superum*, along the upper [Adriatic] sea. TIME: *secundum lūdōs*, after the sports; *secundum hunc diem*, after this day. METAPHORICALLY: *secundum deōs*, next to the gods; *secundum nātūrā*, according to nature.

(24.) *Suprā*, on the upper side of, above (opposite of *īnfrā*). PLACE: *suprā terram*, above the earth. NUMBER: *suprā septem mīlia*, more than seven thousand. METAPHORICALLY: *suprā lēgēs*, above the laws; *suprā hūmānam fidem*, beyond what one could believe of man.

* Or *paucis post diēbus*. (Cf. foot-note on p. 353.)

(25.) *Trāns*, across, beyond. *Trāns mare īre*, to go across the sea; *trāns Rhēnum esse*, to be across the Rhine.

(26.) *Ūltrā*, on the farther side of, beyond (opposite of *citrā*). *Ūltrā Padum*, on the other side of the Po; *ūltrā puerīlēs annōs*, beyond the years of boyhood; *ūltrā modum*, beyond the limit.

Prepositions with Accusative or Ablative.

560 (1.) *In*, into (with accusative), in (with ablative) (opposite of *ex*).

a. With accusative (motion implied). PLACE: *in urbem*, into the city; *in Hispāniam*, into Spain; *in caelum*, towards heaven. TIME: *in multam noctem*, till late at night. METAPHORICALLY: *in perpetuum*, for ever; *in aliquem carmen scribere*, to write a poem on somebody; *in liberōs indulgentia*, indulgence towards one's children; *pietūs in deōs*, piety towards the gods; *impetus in castra*, an attack upon the camp; *in bellum ardentēs*, eager for war.

b. With ablative (motion not implied). PLACE: *in urbe*, in the city; *in terrā*, on the earth; *in cōtione*, in the assembly; *in hīs*, among these. TIME: *in adulēscientiā*, in youth; *in eō annō*, in that year. METAPHORICALLY: *in mē*, in my case; *in metū*, in fear; *in hōc genere*, in this class.

(2.) *Sub*, under (opposite of *super*).

a. With accusative (motion implied). PLACE: *sub iugum mittere*, to send under the yoke; *sub montem accēdere*, to go to the foot of the mountain. TIME: *sub vesperum*, just towards evening; *sub lūcem*, just before dawn; *sub haec dicta*, just after this was said. METAPHORICALLY: *sub potestātem eius cadere*, to fall under his power.

b. With ablative (motion not implied). PLACE: *sub terrā*, under the earth; *sub vestimentis*, under one's clothing; *sub monte*, at the foot of the mountain. TIME: *sub ipsā profectiōne*, just at the start; *sub lūce*, by daylight. METAPHORICALLY: *sub armis*, under arms; *sub rēgnō illius*, under his sway; *sub hīs condiōnibus*, on these terms.

(3.) *Subter*, beneath (rare and mostly poetical). *Subter*

fastīgia tēctī, below the point of the roof; *subter mare*, under the sea; *subter litore*, by [beneath] the shore.

(4.) *Super*, above (opposite of *sub*).

a. With accusative. *Super caput hostium pervenire*, to come out above the heads of the enemy; *aquila super carpentum volitāns*, an eagle flying over the carriage; *super Bosporum*, beyond the Bosphorus; *super epulās*, during the feast (post-classical).

b. With ablative (chiefly in the metaphorical meaning "about," "concerning"). *Super hāc rē*, on this matter; *super ancillā*, in regard to the handmaid; *super Priamō rogītāns*, asking about Priam. [Very rare in Cicero, and not found in Caesar in this use.]

Prepositions with Ablative.

561. (1.) *Ab* (*abs*, *ā*), away from, from (opposite of *ad*). PLACE: *ab urbe dūcere*, to march from the city; *ā tē abire*, to go away from you. TIME: *ab urbe conditā*, from or after, the founding of the city; *ab hōrā tertiā*, from the third hour. METAPHORICALLY: *ab dēfēnsiōne dēsistere*, to cease from the defense; *prope ab orīgine*, near [*i. e.*, not far from] the origin; *ab illō differre*, to be different from that; *quārtus ab Arcesilā*, fourth from [*i. e.*, after] Arcesilas; *ā patre dēductus ad Scaevolam*, taken by my father to Scaevola; *abs tē laudārī*, to be praised by you.

(2.) *Absque*, away from, without, except (ante-classical and post-classical). *Absque paucīs syllabīs*, except a few syllables (Gell.).

Absque is very rare except in Plautus and Terence, where it is used only in connection with the imperfect subjunctive of *sum* as an equivalent for a conditional clause. Thus: —

Quam fortunātus ceterīs sum rēbus absque ūnā hāc foret, how lucky I am in everything else, were it not for this one thing [if it were apart from this one thing] (Ter., *Hec.*, 601).

(3.) *Cōram* (first used as preposition by Cicero), before the face of, in presence of. *Cōram generō meō*, in my son-in-law's presence; *cōram populō*, before the people (Hor.).

(4.) *Cum*, with, in company with (opposite of *sine*). *Cum coniugibus et liberis*, with their wives and children; *mēcum*, with me; *pariter cum ortū sōlis*, at sunrise.

(5.) *Dē*, from (between *ab* and *ex*), down from. PLACE: *dē finibus suis exīre*, to go out from one's boundaries; *dē digitō anulū detrāhere*, to take a ring from the finger; *dē caelō*, from heaven. TIME: *dē nocte*, by night; *dē tertiā vigiliā*, in the third watch. METAPHORICALLY: *poēta dē populō*, a poet from the people; *dē suō adventū*, about his arrival; *dē argentō*, in regard to the money; *quid dē frātre*, how about brother?

(6.) *Ex* (*ē*), out of, from (opposite of *in*). PLACE: *ex opidō ire*, to go out of the town; *ē portū*, from the harbor. TIME: *ex cōsulātū*, from, or after, his consulship; *ex eō tempore*, from that time. METAPHORICALLY: *ex tē quaerere*, to ask of you; *ex hōc quaestū*, from this profession; *statua ex aere facta*, a statue made of bronze; *ex meā sententiā*, in accordance with my opinion [wishes]; *ē rē publicā*, in the interest of the state; *ē regiōne*, in a straight line.

(7.) *Prae*, before, in front of. PLACE: *prae sē mittere*, to send in front of one's self. METAPHORICALLY (more frequent): *prae metū*, for fear; *prae magnitudīne*, in comparison with their size; *prae iaculōrum multitudīne*, on account of the number of darts.

(8.) *Prō*, before, in front of. PLACE: *prō aede Castoris*, in front of the temple of Castor; *prō castris*, before the camp; *prō cōtiōne*, before the assembly. METAPHORICALLY: *prō patriā*, in behalf of the country; *prō tē*, for, or instead of, you; *prō beneficiis tuis*, in return for your kindnesses; *prō dignitāte suā*, in accordance with his own dignity.

(9.) *Sine*, without (opposite of *cum*). *Sine tē*, without you; *sine dubiō*, without doubt; *sine poenā*, without punishment.

(10.) *Tenus*, so far as (stands after its case). *Aethiopiā tenus*, as far as Aethiopia; *capulō tenus*, as far as the hilt. (For *tenus* with genitive, see 431, *f*.)

For cases with other parts of speech used like prepositions, see 390, 4, 391, 1 and 3, and 431, *g*.

NOTE. Observe the different meanings of the following constructions:—

<i>Rōmam</i>	to Rome.
<i>ad Rōmam</i>	to (the neighborhood of) Rome.
<i>in Rōmam</i>	into Rome.
<i>Rōmā</i>	from Rome.
<i>ab Rōmā</i>	from (the neighborhood of) Rome.
<i>ex Rōmā</i>	from (within) Rome.

Also:—

<i>Rōmae</i>	at Rome.
<i>ad Rōmam</i>	near Rome.

CONJUNCTIONS AND OTHER CONNECTIVE PARTICLES.

The following points in the use of connectives deserve attention.

Words for AND (Copulatives).

562. The three words for “and,” *et*, *que*, *atque* (*āc*), are used as follows:—

(1.) *Et* is the general connective, meaning simply “and;” as:—

Cicerō et Caesar; *quālis et quanta sit*, of what sort and extent it is; *virtūs ipsa contemnitur et ostentātiō esse dīcitur*, virtue itself is scorned and said to be [mere] display; *multī et * praeclārī virī*, many famous men.

(2.) *Que* implies a very close connection, and is attached to the second of the connected words, or, when it connects phrases or clauses, to the first word of the second phrase or clause. Thus:—

Ferrō ignīque, with fire and sword; *domī militīaeque*, at home and in the field; *senātus populusque Rōmānus*; *sic nātūra solitārium nihil amat semperque ad aliquod tamquam adminiculum . . . adnītitur*, so nature loves nothing solitary, but is always struggling for some support, as it were (Cic., *Am.*, 23, 88).

a. With the prepositions *ā*, *ab*, *ad*, *apud*, *ob*, *sub*, *que* is

* A connective is thus regularly used between two adjectives agreeing with the same noun in Latin, where in English no connective is preferred.

attached to the object rather than to the preposition ; as, *ā mēque*, and by me ; *ob eamque rem*, and on that account.

(3.) *Atque* (*āc*, never used before vowels or *h*) is sometimes used as a simple connective of two words. Thus : —

Bellō āc pāce, in war and peace ; *in omnī caelō atque terrā*, in all heaven and on earth ; *honestā atque inhonestā*, things right and wrong ; *minuit āc mollit*, lessens and softens.

But *atque* (*āc*) is more commonly used to give greater prominence to the last one of the connected ideas (= “ and in fact,” “ and particularly”). Thus : —

Rēs tanta atque tam atrōx, a thing so great and in fact so monstrous ; *vitium levium hominum atque fallācium*, the vice of frivolous and in fact treacherous men ; *ad opēs tuendās āc tenendās*, for the guarding and even maintaining his power.

a. Atque (*āc*) is less common than *et* or *que*, to connect clauses.

b. Atque (*āc*) is used after words implying a comparison, in the sense of “ than ” or “ as.” Thus : —

Virtūs eadem in homine atque deō est, virtue is the same in man as in God ; *vidēs omnia ferē contrā, āc dicta sunt, ēvēnisse*, you see almost everything has come out different from what was said ; *aliter dē aliīs āc dē nōbīs iūdicāmus*, we judge of others otherwise than of ourselves. Cf. the similar use of “ nor ” in vulgar English ; as, “ he ’s taller nor I be.”

For *et* and *que* after *nec* (*nec*), see 565, *d*.

“ *atquē*, see 569, 1.

563. (1.) For “ both . . . and,” *et . . . et* is the regular classical expression.

a. Que . . . que is chiefly confined to the poets and later writers, though also used sometimes in prose when the first word is a pronoun ; as, *sēque remque pūblicam cūrāre*, to care for himself and the state. *Et . . . que*, and *que . . . et*, are rarely found.

b. *Quā . . . quā*, and *simul . . . simul* are also found. So, too, *modō . . . modō*, *tum . . . tum*, “now this . . . now that,” tend to pass into the weaker meaning “both . . . and.”

(2.) *Cum . . . tum*, “both . . . and,” “not only . . . but also,” and *nōn modō* (*solum*, or sometimes *tantum*) . . . *sed* (*vērūm*) *etiam** throw more stress upon the second of the ideas connected. Thus:—

Quā quid potest esse cum fructū laetius tum aspectū pulchrius? cuius quidem nōn utilitās mē solum, ut ante dixi, sed etiam cultūra et nātūra ipsa dēlectat, than which [the vine] what can be, not only more luxuriant in fruit, but even more beautiful to look at? I take delight not only in its usefulness, but also in the very cultivation of it and study of its nature (Cic., *Sen.*, 15, 53).

a. So also when the first expression or both expressions are negative: *nōn modō nōn*, etc., . . . *sed etiam*, or *sed nē . . . quidem*. Thus:—

Omnia dēspicere nōn modō nōn laudī vērūm etiam vitio dandum putō, I think that to look down upon everything (*i. e.*, from a philosophic height) must be regarded not only as no glory, but even as a defect; *egō nōn modō tibi nōn irāscor sed nē reprehendō quidem factum tuum*, I not only am not angry with you, but do not even find fault with what you have done.

b. When the second member contains *nē . . . quidem*, if the predicate of both members is the same, the second *nōn* is regularly omitted in the first member. Thus:—

Quae nōn modō amīcō sed nē liberō quidem dīgna est, which [servile flattery] is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a freeman (Cic., *Am.*, 24, 89).

564. When more than two things are connected, either the conjunction is omitted altogether (*asyndeton*), or it is used between each two words. Thus:—

Cicerō, Caesar, Sallustius, or *Cicerō et Caesar et Sallustius*.

* Sometimes also *sed* alone.

a. Sometimes *que* is attached to the last word of a series otherwise unconnected, although in Cicero in such cases (except where the last word is *aliī, cēterī*, or the like) there is generally, if not always, a closer connection between the last two members of the series which makes them a sort of unit in relation to the rest; as, *voltūs, vōcēs, mōtūs statūsque mūtantur* (*Off.*, i., 29, 102), where the motions and attitude form one element of the series, the other two being the expression of the face and the voice.

b. In Livy and later writers the last two words are sometimes connected even by *et* when the others are unconnected, as is done in English.

c. *Asyndeton* is especially common with pairs of words which together form a sort of whole; as, *equitēs peditēs permixtī*, horse and foot all mixed up together; *ventīs rēmīs*, with wind and oar; and in fixed expressions like *L. Pīsōne A. Gabīniō cōsulibus*; *Iūppiter optimus māximus*.

Words for OR (Disjunctives).

565. (1.) Of the words for “or,” *aut* and *vel* are used in assertions and negations, *an* in questions, *sive* in conditional statements.

(2.) *Aut* indicates that *in the nature of the case* only one of the alternatives is possible; *vel* (from *volō*) indicates that the choice of the alternative *rests with the person concerned*. Thus:—

Haec aut vērā sunt aut falsa, this is either true or false; *hīc vincendum aut moriendum est*, under these circumstances we must conquer or die.

Eiusmodī coniūctiōnem tēctorum oppidum vel urbem appellāvērunt, such a combination of buildings they called a town or [if you please] a city (*Cic.*, *Rē Pūb.*, i., 26, 41); *trānsfer idem ad modestiam vel temperantiam*, apply the same thing to self-control or self-restraint (*Cic.*, *Fīn.*, ii., 19, 60).

Sed utrum tū amīcīs hodiē an inimīcīs tuīs datūru's cēnam? but are you going to give a dinner to your friends or to your enemies on this occasion? (*Plaut.*, *Ps.*, iii., 2, 88).

Cumque hominī sive nātūra sive quis deus nihil mente praestābilius dedisset, and that when either nature* or some god had given man nothing more excellent than his mind (Cic., *Sen.*, 12, 40).

a. *Aut* or *vel* can of course be used in a question when the alternative does not apply to the whole question, but only to a particular pair of words or phrases in it; as:—

Nōnne haec necessariō aut vērā aut falsa sunt? are not these things necessarily either true or false?

b. *Ve* is milder than *vel*, and is attached like *que* to the second word or phrase; as:—

Sine ūllīs praemiīs fructibusve, without any rewards or emoluments; *plūs minusve*, more or less; *bis terve*, two or three times.

c. The use of *vel*, where there is no alternative, in the sense of “if you will,” “even,” is of course adverbial, not conjunctival. Thus:—

Nūllaene igitur rēs sunt senīlēs, quāe vel infirmīs corporibus animō tamen administrentur, are there then no occupations befitting old men, which, even though their bodies be feeble, they can yet carry on with their minds? (Cic., *Sen.*, 6, 15).

Vel is especially common in this use with superlatives.

d. After *neque* (*nec*) in Latin an affirmative clause or phrase is added with *et* or *que*, even when in English “not . . . but” is preferred. Thus:—

Sed nec illa exstincta sunt alunturque potius et augentur, but that [remembrance] is not destroyed, but rather nourished and increased (Cic., *Am.*, 27, 104).

For *nēve* = “and not” in purpose clauses, see 482, 1.

NOTE. As an effective example of the use of different connectives may be given the following sentence from Cicero (*Off.*, i., 25, 86):—

Hinc apud Athēniēnsis māgnae discordiae, in nostrā rē publicā nōn solum sēditionēs, sed etiam pēstifera bella civilia: quae gravis et fortis civis et in rē publicā dignus principātū fugiet atque ōderit trādetque sē tōtūm rei publicae neque opēs aut potentiam cōsectābitur tōtamque eam sic tuēbitur ut omnibus cōsulat.

* I. e., nature, if it was she.

Words for BUT (Adversatives).

566. (1). *Sed* and (more emphatic) *vērūm* are the regular adversative conjunctions corresponding to the English “but.” Thus:—

Vēra dīcō, sed nēquiquam, I speak the truth, but to no purpose.

Nōn quid nōbīs ūtile, vērūm quid necessārium sit, quaerimus, we are trying to find out, not what is expedient for ourselves, but what is necessary.

(2.) *At** marks a contrast more forcibly than *sed* or *vērūm*, and especially introduces an objection to a line of argument, particularly a supposed objection of an opponent. Thus:—

Māgnae dīvitiae dīlābuntur, at ingenī ēgregia facinora immortālia sunt, even great riches slip away, but the deeds of a noble disposition are immortal; *at memoria minuitur*, but [you will say] the memory weakens.

567. *Vērō*, “in fact” (standing regularly second in its clause; see 590, *a*), contrasts something sharply with what has gone before, as *certainly true*. Thus:—

Haec sunt leviōra, illa vērō gravia atque māgna, these things are rather trifling, but those are really weighty and great.

a. So after a supposed case which is not the real one, *nunc vērō* or *nunc* alone = “as it is,” introduces the real case. Thus:—

Ille autem, sī mēhercule hōc, quod agit, numquam antea cōgitasset, tamen latrōcinantem sē interficī mallet quam ersulem vivere; nunc vērō, etc., now he, if, by the gods, he had never before meditated the move he is now making, would yet prefer to be killed in border warfare than to live in exile; but as it is, etc. (Cic., *Cat.*, ii., 7, 16).

568. *Autem* is the mildest word for “but,” and frequently marks a transition so slight that in English “however,” “now,” “and,” would be employed. Thus:—

* A form *ast* occurs in poetry.

Croesus hostium vim sēsē perversūrum putāvit, pervertit autem suam, Croesus thought he was going to overthrow the power of his foes, but he overthrew his own; *nihil praestābilius mihi vidētur quam posse dīcendō hominēs impellere quō velīs, unde autem velīs dēdūcere*, nothing seems to me finer than to be able by oratory to persuade men to what you will and again to draw them away from what you will; *M. Octāvius Salōnūs oppugnāre instituit; est autem oppidum et loci nātūrā et colle mūnītum*, Marcus Octavius began to besiege Saloniae; it is, by the way, a town fortified by its situation upon a hill.

a. Parentheses are often, as in the last example, introduced by *autem*.

b. *Cēterum* is also used for “but” (lit., as to the rest), especially by Livy. Thus:—

Nōdum bellum erat, cēterum iam bellī causā certāmina . . . serēbantur, there was not yet war, but quarrels were already being stirred up with a view to war (Liv., xxi., 6, 1).

Atqui and Tamen.

569. (1.) *Atqui*, and yet, must not be confounded with *atque*. It stands only at the beginning of an independent sentence, and asserts emphatically the truth of that sentence in spite of what went before it.

“*Ō rem*” *inquis* “*inexplicābilem!*” *atqui explicanda est*, “oh inexplicable situation,” you say; and yet it must be explained.

(2.) *Tamen* is the regular word for “yet,” “however.” It does not stand first unless the *concessive character* of the thing said is to be emphasized rather than the thing itself. Thus:—

Pausaniās accūsātus capitis absolvitur, multātur tamen pecūniā, Pausanias is accused of a capital crime and, though not condemned to death, is yet punished by a fine; *quae tametsi Caesar intellegēbat, tamen quam mītissimē potest lēgātōs appellat*, although Caesar understood what this meant, he nevertheless addressed the ambassadors as affably as possible.

Words for THEREFORE (Illatives).

570. *Itaque* marks a thing as the ACTUAL consequence of something which precedes; *igitur* and (less common) *ergō* introduce the LOGICAL consequence of an argument; *proinde* (= "accordingly") is used only with commands and exhortations (imperative and subjunctive). Thus: —

Aristidēs aequālis ferē fuit Themistoclī ; itaque cum eō dē principātū contendit, Aristides was of about the same age as Themistocles : therefore he was his rival in aiming at the chief magistracy.

Bēstiōlæ quaedam ūnum diem vīvunt ; ex hīs igitur hōrū octāvā quæ mortua est, prōvectā aetāte mortua est, certain animalculæ live but one day; one of these therefore which dies at the eighth hour, dies in advanced age.

Proinde fac animum tantum habeās quantō opus sit, see therefore that you have as much courage as is needed.

a. Igitur does not often stand first, except in Sallust, Livy, and the later writers.

Words for FOR.

571. These are *nam*, *namque*, *enim*, *etenim*. *Namque* and *etenim* imply a little closer connection than the others, and are much less common. *Enim* is weaker than *nam*, and in classical Latin never begins its clause. Thus: —

Nam māximum ōrnāmentum amīcitiæ tollit, quī ex eā tollit verēcundiam, for he takes away the greatest ornament of friendship who takes respect from it (Cic., *Am.*, 22, 82).

Sic sē rēs habet ; ut enim nōn omne vīnum sic nōn omnis nātūra vetustāte coacēscit, so the matter stands; for, as in the case of wine, not every disposition grows sour with age (Cic., *Sen.*, 18, 65).

a. Neque enim is much commoner than *nam nōn*, and in general the Romans had a fancy for bringing in the negative as early as possible. Hence, usually, are found *neque*, *nec umquam*, etc., rather than *et nōn*, *et numquam*, etc.

Quidem, Sānē, Vērō, Certē, Profectō, Saltem, etc.

NOTE. These words are rather adverbs emphasizing the word before them than conjunctions, but their use in connecting sentences by throwing emphasis upon the first word in their clause makes it easier to understand them in connection with the preceding.

572. *Quidem* is the weakest of the above words, and is often best rendered in English by putting extra stress of voice upon the word before it; *sānē* and *vērō* give perhaps the most emphasis. Thus: —

Vim hōc quidem est adferre; quid enim rēfert quā mē rationē cōgūtis? cōgitis certē, THIS is to apply force; for what matters it how you force me? force me you certainly do (Cic., *Am.*, 8, 26).

Egō vērō nōn gravārer, sī mihi ipse cōnfīderem, I certainly should make no objection if I had confidence in myself (Cic., *Am.*, 5, 17).

Profectō negāre nōn potes, surely you cannot deny it (Cic., *Verr.*, ii., 18, 44).

Ēripe mihi hunc dolōrem aut minue saltem, take this grief from me or at least alleviate it (Cic., *Att.*, ix., 6, 5).

a. *Equidem* is used, as a rule, rather than *quidem*, if the particle is to be connected with an *egō* (expressed or implied); as: —

Id equidem egō certō sciō, that I know for sure (Plaut., *Bacc.*, iii., 3, 3); “*nihil*” inquit “*equidem nōvī*,” “I know nothing about it,” he says (Cic., *Div.*, i., 6, 11).

But: *Ex mē quidem nihil audire potuissēs*, you could have heard nothing from me (Cic., *N. D.*, i., 21, 57).

Equidem is, however, occasionally used with the second and third persons.

b. *Ne . . . quidem*, “not . . . even,” “not . . . either,” takes the emphatic word or words between its parts. (Cf. 563, 2, a.)

c. *Sī quidem* corrects a previous statement, and is equivalent to “that is, if;” as: —

Apud Graecōs antiquissimum est genus poetarum, sī quidem Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, among the Greeks

poets are a very ancient class — that is, if Homer lived before the founding of Rome.

Etiam and Quoque.

573. *Etiam*, even, also, generally stands *before* the word or phrase which it emphasizes; *quoque*,* also, even, always *after* the word it emphasizes, or second in the clause when it applies to it as a whole. Thus: —

Iūstitiam quī tollunt, etiam adversus deōs impiū iūdicandī sunt, those who do away with justice are to be judged disloyal even towards the gods.

Quā tempestāte Karthāginiēnsēs plēraēque Āfricæ imperitābant, Cŷrēnēnsēs quoque māgnī fuēre, at the time when the Carthaginians ruled most of Africa, the Cyrenaeans also were great (Sall., *Jug.*, 79, 2).

a. Et is rarely used for *etiam* in classical prose, except with certain particles, *nam*, *quīn*, *sed*, *sic*, *simul*, *vērūm*, etc., and with the demonstrative pronouns or *ipse*; as: —

Et illud videndum quantō magis hominēs mala fugiant, quam sequantur bona, we must notice this also, how much more men shun the wrong than they pursue the right (Cic., *Part. ōr.*, 26, 90).

In Aequōs trānsiit et ipsōs bellum mōlientēs, he marched over into the land of the Aequi [who were] themselves planning war (Līv., vi., 2, 14).

INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

Single Questions.

574. *Ne* is always used to ask questions simply for information, and does not show whether an affirmative or a negative answer is expected. It is always attached enclitically to an emphatic word in its clause, usually to the first word (*i. e.*, the most emphatic one). Thus: —

Vīsne fortunam experīrī? do you want to try fortune?
omnisne pecūnia solūta est? is all the money paid?

* Not to be confused with *quōque* (ablative of *quisque*, each).

a. *Ne* can be attached to any kind of word except prepositions of one syllable. Cf. *in nostrāne potestāte*, in our power? (Cic., *Fin.*, ii, 32, 104).

b. Sometimes the context or the situation shows whether an affirmative or a negative answer is expected, especially with words of *thinking* or *perceiving*. Thus: —

Vidēsne abundāre mē ōtiō, do you not see that I have plenty of leisure? (Cic., *Tūsc.*, ii., 11, 26); *ubi tua aut quālis potēsne dīcere*, can you say where or what your own [mind is]? (Cic., *Tūsc.*, i., 27, 67).

c. *Ne* is occasionally appended to another interrogative word; as, *uterne, utrumne, quantane, numne*.

d. In the dramatic and other poets *vīn?* *vidēn?* *satin?* etc., are often found for *vīsne?* *vidēsne?* *satisne?* etc.

575. *Nōnne* is used to introduce a question to which an affirmative answer is expected. Thus: —

Canis nōnne lupō similis est, is not a dog like a wolf?

a. So also *nēmōne, nihilne, numquamne, nūsqumne*.

b. *Nōnne* is not used by Plautus and is very rare in Terence, the simple *ne* being used instead. Cf. 574, *b.*

576. *Num* is used to introduce a question to which a negative answer is expected. Thus: —

Num putās mē tam dēmentem fuisse? do you imagine that I was so mad?

577. Sometimes questions expressing wonder or disapproval are put without any particle; as: —

Rogās? you ask? can you ask? *tū id nēsciēbās?* you did n't know it? *Archiam egō nōn dīligam?* shall I not esteem Archias?

578. *An* is used to introduce a single direct question (1) when it implies a supposed answer to a previous question, or (2) when it strengthens a previous statement by hinting that the thing suggested in the question is inconceivable. Thus: —

(1.) *Quid ad mē venītis? an speculandī causā*, why come ye to me? for the purpose of spying?

(2.) *Ōrātōrem irāscī minimē decet; an tibi irāscī tum vidētur cum quid in causīs vehementius dīcit*, it is not at all becoming for an orator to give way to wrath; or does he perhaps seem to you to give way to wrath when he says something violently in pleading a case?

579. In indirect questions *ne* and *num* are used without appreciable difference; *nōnne* implies the answer "yes." Thus: —

Quaeritur, idemne sit pertinācia et perseverantia, the question is, whether persistence and perseverance are the same.

Rōmānī speculābantur, num sollicitātī animī sociōrum ab rēge Perseō essent, the Romans were trying to find out whether the feelings of their allies had been alienated by king Perseus.

Quaesierūs ex mē, nōnne putārem invenīrī vērū potuisse, you [had] asked me whether I did not think the truth might have been found out.

a. The phrases *haud sciō an, nēsciō an, dubitō an*, are apt to imply an affirmative answer, and are thus often equivalent to the English "I am inclined to think." Thus: —

Aristotelem haud sciō an rēctē dixerim prīncipem philosophōrum, I am inclined to think I could justly call Aristotle the chief of philosophers.

b. *Forsitan* (i. e., *fors sit an*) always takes the subjunctive in good prose; as, *forsitan quaerātis, quī iste terror sit*, perhaps you ask, what that alarm is (Cic., *Rōsc. Am.*, 2, 5). *Fortasse* takes the indicative.

Disjunctive Questions.

580. DISJUNCTIVE or DOUBLE questions (whether direct or indirect) are introduced by *utrum . . . an*, or *ne (num) . . . an*, or by *an* alone with the second member, the first having no particle. Thus: —

Utrum nēscīs quam altē adscenderis an prō nihilō id putās, do you not know how high you have climbed, or do you count it as nothing?

Rōmamne veniam, an hīc maneam, an Arpinum fugiam? shall I go to Rome, or stay here, or fly to Arpinum? *perquiritur, virtūs suamne propter dignitatem an propter fructum aliquem expetatur*, the question [for our exhaustive discussion, *per*] is, whether virtue is desired for its own worth or for some reward.

Postrēma syllaba brevis an longa sit, in versū nihil refert, it makes no difference in verse whether the last syllable is short or long.

a. In short, sharp indirect questions of two members, *ne* is sometimes used with the second member, the first having no particle. Thus:—

Datamēs experiri voluit verum falsumne sibi esset relatum, Datames wished to see whether a true or a false report had been brought to him.

b. For *an* occasionally *anne* is used; as:—

Quaerendum est, utrum una speciēs sit anne plūrēs, we much ask whether there is one species or several.

c. Real disjunctive questions must be carefully distinguished from single questions, which involve alternatives in points of detail merely. In these last, not *an* but *aut* or *vel* is used. Thus, in *quid ergo? sōlem dicam aut lūnam aut caelum deum*, the question is, whether such things as the sun and moon and sky are to be called gods; but in *sōlem dicam an lūnam an caelum deum*, the question is, to which one of the three the name of god is to be given. (Cf. 565, 2, a.)

581. If the second member of a disjunctive question is negative, it is introduced by *annōn* or by *necne*. *Annōn* is more common for direct questions, *necne* for indirect. Thus:—

Isne est, quem quaerō, annōn, is that the man I am looking for or not?

Dī utrum sint necne sint, quaeritur, the question is whether there are or are not gods.

YES and NO.

582. The answer to a question in Latin is regularly given by repeating its emphatic word for affirmation, and by repeating that word with *nōn* for denial. Thus : —

Mēne vīs ? tē. Do you want me? Yes.

Estne frater intus ? nōn est. Is brother at home? No.

a. Sometimes also an affirmative answer is given simply by *ita*, *ita vērō*, *ita est*, *etiam*, *sānē*, *quidem*, *certē*, or *māximē* ; a negative answer by *nōn*, *nōn ita*, *nōn vērō*, or *minimē*.

b. *Immō* and *immō vērō* give a strong affirmative answer to a question in which some doubt is latent, or contradict strongly a negative question. Thus : —

Nōn igitur praestat patria omnibus officiis ? immō vērō, is not then patriotism more important than all other relations of duty? Yea, verily.

Num Sulla Rōmae fuit ? immō longē āfuit, was Sulla at Rome? On the contrary, he was far away.

INTERJECTIONS.

583. The INTERJECTIONS are rather exclamatory sounds than words in the proper sense, and have no syntax. The chief Latin interjections are as follows : —

<i>ā !</i> (<i>āh !</i>) ah !	<i>eu !</i> well done !
<i>aha !</i> ah ! aha !	<i>euge !</i> bravo ! good !
<i>apage !</i> be gone !	<i>euax !</i> hail ! (used by Plautus
<i>atat !</i> (<i>atatte !</i> <i>atatatae !</i> etc.),	only).
oh ! alas ! lo !	<i>euhoe !</i> hail !
<i>au !</i> oh !	<i>ha !</i> (<i>hahae !</i> <i>ha ! ha ! ha !</i>)
<i>ecce !</i> lo ! behold !	hold ! ho !
<i>ehem !</i> ha ! what !	<i>hei !</i> (<i>ei !</i>) woe ! ah me !
<i>ēheu !</i> alas !	<i>hem !</i> (<i>em !</i>) oho ! indeed !
<i>eho !</i> (<i>ehodum !</i>) ho ! holloa !	alas !
<i>ēia !</i> (<i>hēia !</i>) ah ! indeed !	<i>heu !</i> oh ! oh ! alas !
<i>ēn !</i> lo ! behold !	<i>heus !</i> ho there ! say !

<i>hui!</i> hah! ho! oh!	<i>phu!</i> (<i>fu!</i>) foh! fugh!
<i>iō!</i> ho! hurrah! hail!	<i>phy!</i> pish! tush!
<i>malum!</i> the deuce!	<i>prō!</i> (<i>prōh!</i>) oh!
<i>ō!</i> (<i>ōh!</i>) O! oh! ah!	<i>st!</i> hush! whist!
<i>ōhē!</i> ho! holloa!	<i>tatae!</i> strange! so!
<i>oho!</i> oho! aha!	<i>vae!</i> woe! alas!
<i>oi!</i> oh me! alas!	<i>vah!</i> (<i>vaha!</i>) ah! alas!
<i>papae!</i> strange!	

a. Of these *ō*, *ecce*, *ehem*, *ēn*, *papae*, *tatae*, *vah*, express ASTONISHMENT; *euhoē*, *euax*, *iō*, express JOY or ECSTASY; *ēheu*, *hei*, *heu*, *oi*, *vae*, express SORROW; *eho*, *ehodum*, *heus*, *ōhē*, are used to CALL ATTENTION; *ēia*, *euge*, *hēia*, express PRAISE; *prō*, *prōh*, are used in ASSEVERATION.

b. To the interjections may be added the mild oaths: *Eccere*, by Ceres! *Ēcastor*, by Castor! gracious! *Edepol*, or *Pol*, by Pollux! gad! *mēhercule*, (*hercle*, etc.), by Hercules! thunder! *mē dius fidius*, by Jove! and the expressions *Dī meliōra* (*duint*), God forbid! (lit., give better things); *Dī vostram fidem*, Heavens! (lit., O gods, [I appeal to] your honor); *prō deōrum atque hominum fidem*, heavens and earth! *prō dī immortālēs*, by the immortal gods! *periū*, oh dear! (lit., I am ruined), etc.

c. Here may also be mentioned the affirmative particle *nē*, verily (not to be confused with the negative *nē*). It is used only with personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns or adverbs. Thus: —

Nē egō homō infēlix fui, verily I was an unlucky being (Plaut., *Am.*, i., 1, 172).

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS (*Ōrdō verbōrum*).

NOTE. One of the most important differences between Latin sentences and English sentences is the way in which the words are arranged. In English ordinarily the subject comes first (an adjective which modifies it standing, however, before it), the verb next, then the object, and so on. The lack of case-endings makes such an arrangement necessary in order to tell

how the words are related to each other. In Latin, on the other hand, the gender, number, case, mood, tense, etc., of the words are shown by their *endings* simply, and their *order* is used for another purpose, namely : —

584. In Latin sentences the words are arranged chiefly to show which are the more emphatic ones, *i. e.* (roughly speaking), which would receive *greater stress of voice* in English.

585. This arrangement is based upon the very simple principle that the *first* word in any combination is more emphatic than the *second*, the *second* more emphatic than the *third*, and so on. Thus : —

Bonus *vir* means “a GOOD man,” *vir bonus* means “a good MAN;” *lātrant canēs* means “dogs BARK,” *canēs lātrant* means “DOGS bark.”

In the same way, *Gallos Caesar vīcit* means “Caesar conquered THE GAULS;” and *verberat crūdēliter servōs* means “he IS BEATING the slaves *cruelly*.”

NOTE 1. When the expression becomes longer and more complex the shades of relative emphasis are too numerous and too fine to be at all adequately expressed by stress of voice, but a little practice in reading Latin so as to *understand it without translating* enables one to feel the force and delicacy of the emphases indicated by the word-arrangement. The pupil should accustom himself thus to feel the differences in arrangements like the following : —

(1.) *Omnēs herī Rōmam vēnimus.*

Herī Rōmam omnēs vēnimus.

Rōmam omnēs herī vēnimus.

Vēnimus herī omnēs Rōmam.

(2.) *Hī puerī facile Latīnē scrībunt.*

Puerī hī Latīnē facile scrībunt.

Scrībunt facile hī puerī Latīnē.

Latīnē facile scrībunt hī puerī.

Facile hī puerī scrībunt Latīnē.

(3.) Fortis miles numquam tergum vertet.

Numquam miles fortis tergum vertet.

Tergum fortis miles numquam vertet.

Vertet numquam fortis miles tergum.

NOTE 2. In all except the very simplest sentences, some of the words are used as single units in the sentence, others are grouped in phrases, and these last have more complicated relations of emphasis; for instance, a relation to the other words of their own phrase and a relation to the sentence as a whole. Now it is chiefly the relation of emphasis which a word has to its own phrase that we mark by stress of voice in English. Therefore for the English-speaking student of Latin it is especially necessary to observe how the words are grouped in phrases; also to notice that the emphasis of a phrase may be increased by separating its words from each other, because then the attention has to be held over from the first word of the phrase until its last word arrives to complete it. Compare the arrangements in groups (2) and (3) above.

The following practical rules on points of detail may be given:—

586. In combinations of a noun and an adjective the noun comes first, unless the *adjective* is distinctly *emphatic*.*

587. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS (*meus, alius, hic, ille*, etc.) are more often found before their nouns, because when used at all they are oftener emphatic than not.

* The following considerations will make the reason for this rule clear: In such an expression as “dogs bark” there are two contrasts latent, a contrast between dogs and other animals and a contrast between barking and other actions. If we emphasize “dogs,” we bring the one contrast more sharply before the hearer’s attention; if we emphasize “bark,” we do the same by the other contrast. In expressions, however, consisting of a noun and an adjective, there are further possibilities. If we say “a brick house,” we do, as before, contrast sharply a brick house with some other kind of house; but if we say “a brick *house*,” while we may mean thus sharply to contrast a house of brick with other buildings of brick, we may also mean simply to mark the complex idea “brick house” as a single thing which we make the subject of our thought. There is a subtle connection between our word accent and stress of voice which makes us utter the word “house” in this last case somewhat more forcibly than the word “brick,” and the Roman did the analogous thing in putting the noun before the adjective in such cases. When there is a doubt about the proper position in any given case, it will be found that if the adjective is put first, not belonging there, the effect is one of over-emphasis (turgid rhetoric).



588. ADVERBS are *apt* to be more emphatic than the verbs, participles, or adjectives which they modify, and therefore rather more commonly stand before them.

589. PREPOSITIONS regularly stand just before their nouns, or with an adjective or genitive intervening. (But see 431, *d* and *e*.)

590. CONJUNCTIONS and other connectives stand between the words or clauses which they connect.

a. The following words stand after the word which they emphasize, or occupy the second place in a clause when they apply to it as a whole (hence they are called POST-POSITIVE) : —

<i>autem</i> , but, besides, and.	<i>quidem</i> , in fact.
<i>enim</i> , for.	<i>quoque</i> , also, even.
<i>igitur</i> , therefore, then.	<i>vērō</i> , in truth, but.
<i>interim</i> , meanwhile.	

b. *Que*, and (and *ve*, or *), are attached enclitically to the second of two words which they connect, and, when they connect phrases or clauses, to the first word of the second phrase or clause. Thus : —

Plūs minusve, more or less ; *senātus populusque Rōmānus*, the senate and people of Rome ; *corpora cūrāre eōs iūssit sēque parātōs ad omnia habēre*, he bade them take rest and refreshment and be ready for any development of affairs.

591. RELATIVE and INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, besides their pronominal functions, also serve as connectives, and therefore stand first in their clauses (sometimes with a preposition before them).

592. The VOCATIVE CASE generally, and the verb *inquam* always, stand after one or more words.

593. A word may often be made particularly emphatic by being put even before the particle or pronoun which introduces a sentence. Thus : —

Hæc cum Caesarī nūntiāta essent, lēgātōs ad sē venīre iūssit, when *this* was reported to Caesar, he ordered the ambassadors to come to him.

* Cf. also the interrogative *ne*, 574.

THE PERIOD (*Periodus*).

594. By a PERIOD is usually meant a sentence consisting of a main clause and one, or, generally, several subordinate clauses, in which the parts are gracefully balanced and the sense is not completed until the end. But any sentence in which complete sense is not made until the last word is reached may be called a *periodic* sentence.

595. The VERB, from its nature, makes complete sense, unless some word before it indicates the contrary; and therefore in a periodic construction the verb *tends to stand last*.

a. In *dependent* clauses this tendency of the verb to stand last is very much stronger than in independent clauses.

NOTE. The Romans were especially fond of a more or less complete periodic structure of sentences in connected writing. This is only another way of saying that it was a Roman habit of thought to put the least emphatic part of a statement into verb form.*

596. (1.) It follows from the tendency to a periodic structure that in Latin almost all kinds of subordinate clauses more commonly stand before their main clause; but: —

(2.) RESULT CLAUSES generally, CAUSAL and RELATIVE CLAUSES not uncommonly, and others sometimes, come after the main clause.

a. The difference between a periodic and a non-periodic structure of sentence may be seen in the following: —

PERIODIC. Scīpiō, ut Hannibalem ex Ītaliā dēdūceret, exercitum in Āfricam trāiēcīt.

NON-PERIODIC. Scīpiō in Āfricam trāiēcīt exercitum, ut Hannibalem ex Ītaliā dēdūceret.

NOTE 1. It is a very common form of period to begin the sentence thus

* The proportion of sentences with the verb last in Cicero is somewhat more than fifty per cent, in Caesar about seventy-five per cent, and in Latin prose in general rather less than sixty per cent.

with some word belonging to the main clause, then to insert the subordinate clause or clauses, and finally to bring in the rest of the main clause with its verb standing last. This is, in fact, the kind of sentence to which the name "period" most properly applies, *periodus* being the Greek word *περίοδος* (*περί*, round, *ὁδός*, way, road) = Latin *ambitus*, a going round, i. e., a coming back to the starting-point.

NOTE 2. The *heaping* of *finite* verbs at the end of a period should be avoided. Generally there is an infinitive or other close modifier of the main verb which emphasis allows to be kept for the last place but one, thus separating the verb of the dependent clause from the main verb, which closes the period.

NOTE 3. The fondness of the Romans for simplicity and directness created in their speech a certain tendency to make the most emphatic part of their thought also grammatically the subject of the sentence, — in other words, the emphatic word (occupying the first place in the sentence) is a little oftener the subject than not. The common doctrine, however, which teaches that the regular order for a Latin sentence is "subject first and verb last," is erroneous, and besides causing various misconceptions in points of detail gives the learner a very un-Latin mechanical style. While it is true that of the sentences which have a subject expressed about fifty-two per cent have the subject first, and about fifty-seven per cent have the verb last, only about thirty-four per cent have both subject first and verb last. In those sentences, furthermore, which have no subject expressed, the verb comes last only about fifty-eight times out of a hundred.

597. (1.) In historical narrative, philosophical exposition, and other continuous writing, successive sentences are more closely united into a series in Latin than in English.

(2.) This is done largely by choosing as the most emphatic word to be placed first in each sentence one that refers (especially by way of contrast) to something mentioned in the latter part of the previous sentence. Examples are: —

Sed quis ego sum aut quae est in mē facultās? doctōrum est ista cōsuētūdō eāque Graecōrum, ut iīs pōnātur dē quō disputent quamvis subitō, but who am I or what skill is there in me? To the *trained philosophers*, and those, too, Greek philosophers, belongs that habit of allowing a question to be set them for discussion on the spur of the moment (Cic., *Am.*, 5, 17).

Quā rē sibi habeant sapientiae nōmen et invidiōsum et obscūrum ; concēdant ut viri boni fuerint. Nē id quidem facient : negābunt id nisi sapienti posse concēdi, therefore let them keep for themselves the invidious and vague word “philosopher,” but grant that these people were *good MEN*. They will not do even *THIS* : they will say it cannot be granted of any one but a philosopher (Cic., *Am.*, 5, 18).

Sollemne adlātum ex Arcadiā instituisse Pāna venerantēs . . . quem Rōmānī deinde vocāvērunt Inuum. Huic dēditis lūdicro, cum sollemne nōtum esset, insidiātōs ob iram praedae amissae latrōnēs, cum Rōmulus vī sē dēfendisset, Remum cēpisse, captum regī Amūliō tradidisse, ūltrō accūsantēs. Crīmīnī mūximē dabant, etc., he had established a sacred festival brought from Arcadia, consisting of certain rites performed by young men in honor of Pan, whom the Romans afterwards called Inuus. Since this was a well known event, the robbers, who were full of rage at the loss of their booty, made a plot to attack [the shepherd boys] while busied with the festival. Romulus succeeded in defending himself, but they took Remus, and, having taken him, handed him over to king Amulius with a gratuitous accusation. Their main charge was, etc. (Līv., i., 5, 2-3).

ANAPHORA AND CHIASMUS.

598. The Romans had also a great fancy for *antitheses*, or the setting off against each other of the corresponding parts of two expressions or statements.

(1.) When the corresponding parts of two or more phrases, clauses, or sentences stand in the same order, the arrangement is called *ANAPHORA*.*

(2.) When the corresponding parts stand in opposite orders, the arrangement is called *CHIASMUS*, or the *chias-tic* order. Thus : —

* From the Greek ἀναφέρω, bring up ; hence, the repeating of the order.

ANAPHORA.

Quid dicam de moribus facil-
limis, de pietate in matrem,
liberalitate in sorores, boni-
tate in suos, iustitiam in
omnes? (Cic., *Am.*, 3, 11).

Ita recta ingenia debilitat
verecundia, perversa confir-
mat audacia (Plin., *Ep.*, iv., 7).

CHIASMUS.

Aequē iucunda erit simpli-
citas dissentientis quam com-
probantis auctoritas (Plin.,
Ep., iii., 4, 9).

Si hostium fuit ille sanguis,
summa militum pietas; nefā-
rium scelus, si civium (Cic.,
Phil., xiv., 3, 6).

a. When *alter* . . . *alter* are used, referring to two things already mentioned, they are usually arranged chiastically; as: —

In quō quid potest esse malī, cum mors nec ad vivōs per-
tineat nec ad mortuōs? Alterī nulli sunt, alterōs nōn
attinget, but in this what evil can there be, since death concerns
neither the living nor the dead? The one have no existence,
and it will not touch the others (Cic., *Tusc.*, i., 38, 91).

NOTE. In *chiasmus* the balanced phrases consist usually of only two terms each, and the name comes from the resemblance to the Greek letter X (*chi*), suggested by the criss-cross arrangement.

CERTAIN MINOR POINTS OF ORDER.

599. Certain minor points with regard to the arrange-
ment of the sentence deserve notice, as follows: —

a. The more rhetorical writers, especially Cicero, were careful to make their sentences euphonious and rhythmically smooth. This they accomplished by choosing* words which in the positions required by their relations of emphasis produced a pleasing variety by their alternations of long with short syllables and of accented with unaccented parts, and also by paying particular attention to the end of the sentence.

Cicero declares himself especially fond of certain cadences at the end of a sentence; namely, — ◡ — (cretic), as, *pōstulant*; — ◡◡ (dactyl), as, *rēximus*; — ◡◡◡ — ◡ (1st paeon with

* Not by changing the order, as if the Romans thought their sentences out in words first, and afterwards settled the order.

a trochee or spondee), as, *esse videātur* ; and, above all, — ◡ — ◡ (double trochee), as, *comprobāvit*. On the other hand, the rhythm — ◡ ◡ — ◡ (dactyl and spondee, *i. e.*, the ending of a regular hexameter verse), was rather avoided ; as, *dēgere possit*. It should be observed, however, that a false emphasis is never allowed for the sake of a more rhythmical ending.

b. The emphases of the early part of a sentence are often fixed by the *logical sequence of the ideas* in their relation to the previous sentence, but towards the end the distinctions of emphasis are less sharp, and it frequently depends on the mere choice of the writer from which of two or three slightly different points of view the closing ideas shall be presented.

c. Not infrequently the verb occupies the last place but one in the sentence. The commonest cases are (1) when the verb stands between a noun and a modifying adjective or genitive, (2) when the verb precedes an infinitive which depends upon it, (3) when the subject of the verb is kept for the last place. Thus : —

(1.) *Ut ūlla intermīssiō fiat offici* (Cic., *Am.*, 2, 8).

(2.) *Quantās vix queō dīcere* (Cic., *Am.*, 6, 22).

(3.) *Nē tē . . . disserentem dēficiat ōrātiō* (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, i., 23, 37).

NOTE. Sometimes there is an evident gain in emphasis in thus making the verb a little more prominent than the other word, but sometimes the difference in emphasis is so slight that the arrangement seems rather to have been made for euphony. Thus, in the last case above, the difference in emphasis is easily appreciable according as *dēficiat ōrātiō* or *ōrātiō dēficiat* is written ; in the second case it is less easy to feel an emphasis on *queō* ; in the first case the shade of emphasis is intangible, but the rhetorical effect of the separation of *intermīssiō* and *offici* is very distinct.

d. The difference between the ordinary accent of English and of Latin sentences sometimes tends to make a Latin emphasis seem unnatural to us, especially at the end of a sentence. For so far as we mark emphasis by position at all, the last place in our sentences is the most emphatic.

NOTE 1. Such cases occur chiefly —

(1.) In carefully balanced pairs of sentences where all the words are

forcible, as in the second example of anaphora (598) above. Thus: *ita rēcta ingenia dēbilitat verēcundia, perversa cōfirmat audācia*. Here there are three pairs of contrasts, and it is difficult to see that one is stronger than another, except that an English accent tends to make us give the contrast between *verēcundia* and *audācia* a little more force than the others. To the Roman, however, so far as there was a difference it was in favor of the contrast between *rēcta ingenia* and *perversa*.

(2.) In a similar single sentence, where the last word has a certain emphasis, though the words before it are still more emphatic; as, *ex tribus primīs generibus, longē praestat, meā sentiētiā, rēgium* (Cic., *Rē Pūb.*, i., 45, 69). The proper relative emphases here can be expressed roughly by translating thus: "The royal is in MY OPINION BY FAR the best of the FIRST THREE KINDS."

(3.) When the last word is a proper name. Thus, the sentence *tantum abest ut nostra mirēmur, ut ūsque eō difficilēs ac mōrōsī sīmus, ut nōbīs nōn satisficiat ipse Dēmōsthenēs* (Cic., *Ōr.*, 29, 104), means "so far am I from admiring my own efforts that I am critical and exacting to such a degree that *Demosthenes* HIMSELF does not SATISFY ME." At first sight the meaning might seem to be "that I am not satisfied with DEMOSTHENES HIMSELF," but the Latin order for that would be *ut ipse Dēmōsthenēs nōbīs nōn satisficiat*.*

* In thus giving a different explanation from the usual one of passages like the two last quoted, I regret that it would take too much space to set forth here the reasons for my opinion. A study of very many instances has convinced me that this opinion is correct. It is, of course, inherently possible that the last word in the cases given should be the most emphatic, and tradition has made it seem more natural to regard them so; but when I put the following arrangements beside each other: —

longē praestat meā sentiētiā rēgium;
rēgium meā sentiētiā longē praestat;
ipse Dēmōsthenēs nōbīs nōn satisficit;
nōbīs nōn satisficit ipse Dēmōsthenēs,

and find in Cicero near this last order the following: —

itaque sē pūrgāns iocātur Dēmōsthenēs,

where nobody makes "Demosthenes" the emphatic word, and, on the other hand,

ut Aeschinī nē Dēmōsthenēs quidē videātur Atticē dicere,

and *cum etiam Dēmōsthenēs exagitētur ut putidus* (*Ōr.*, 8, 26 and 27),

I cannot believe that so practical a people as the Romans used the different arrangements only for the sake of variety, nor can I find any better explanation than the one suggested.

NOTE 2. So also an emphasis is sometimes repeated for rhetorical effect where an alternation of emphasis would seem more natural to us. Thus:—

Quālis, ut arbitror, nēmō umquam erit, ut cōfirmāre possum, nēmō certē fuit (Cic., *Am.*, 3, 10); *nam plūrimum fidē, plūrimum vēritātē, plūrimum intellegentiā praestat* (Plin., *Ep.*, iii., 2, 3).

Here the Roman mind is concentrated for the moment on the given expressions as *individual* phrases, while we are inclined to think rather of their relation to each other as *parts of a whole*. Sometimes, however, we, too, should repeat the emphasis as the Roman does. Thus:—

Quā rē quod dandum est amicitiae, largē dabitur ā mē, ut tēcum agam, Servi, nōn secus āc sī meus esset frāter, quī mihi est cārissimus, istō in locō; quod tribuendum est officiō, fidei, religiōni, id ita moderābor ut meminerim, mē contrā amīcī studium prō amīcī periculō dicere, . . . so as to remember that though it is a *friend* whose desire I oppose, it is also a *friend* whom my speech tries to shield from danger (Cic., *Mūr.*, 4, 10).

VERSIFICATION (*Versificātiō*).


600. In poetry, unlike prose, the words are marked off into regular divisions of *time*, called FEET (*pedēs*). A combination of a fixed number of feet constitutes a line or VERSE (*versus*).


601. The unit of measurement is the quantity or duration of one short syllable or one MORA. (See 26, *a*.)

602. Feet consist of three morae, or of four morae, a few also of five morae, making thus divisions of time like the measures of music, as follows:—


(1.) Three-time measure ($\frac{3}{8}$).

Trochee — ∪ (musically ) , as, *arma*.


Iambus ∪ — (“ ) , “ *erant*.


Tribrach ∪ ∪ ∪ (“ ) , “ *facere*.

(2.) Four-time (or two-time) measure ($\frac{4}{8} = \frac{2}{4}$).

Dactyl — ∪ ∪ (musically ) , as, *corpora*.

Anapaest ∪ ∪ — (“ ) , “ *dominī*.

Spondee — — (“ ) , “ *fundunt*.

Proceleusmatic ∪ ∪ ∪ ∪ (“ ) , “ *hominibus*.

(3.) Five-time measure ($\frac{5}{8}$).*

Cretic	— ∪ —	(musically $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	as, <i>castitās</i> .
Bacchius	∪ — —	(“ $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	“ <i>Catōnēs</i> .
1st Paeon	— ∪ ∪ ∪	(“ $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	“ <i>temporibus</i>
4th Paeon	∪ ∪ ∪ —	(“ $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	“ <i>celeritās</i> .

To these may be added the following: —

a. Six-time measure ($\frac{6}{8} = \frac{3}{4}$).

Greater Ionic	— — ∪ ∪	(musically $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	as, <i>corrēximus</i> .
Lesser Ionic	∪ ∪ — —	(“ $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	“ <i>properābant</i> .
Choriambus	— ∪ ∪ —	(“ $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$),	“ <i>terrificant</i> .

NOTE. Several other varieties of feet are named by the ancient grammarians, but are discarded by the usage of to-day, as unnecessary in explaining Latin versification. They are: —

Pyrrhic	∪ ∪,	as, <i>deus</i> .
Amphibrach	∪ — ∪,	“ <i>amāre</i> .
Antibacchius	— — ∪,	“ <i>Rōmānus</i> .
Molossus	— — —,	“ <i>contendunt</i> .
Dispondeē	— — — —,	“ <i>cōnflīxērunt</i> .
Ditrochee	— ∪ — ∪,	“ <i>comprobāvit</i> .
Diiambus	∪ — ∪ —,	“ <i>amāverānt</i> . x
Antispast	∪ — — ∪,	“ <i>adhaesisse</i> .
2d Paeon	∪ — ∪ ∪,	“ <i>potentia</i> .
3d Paeon	∪ ∪ — ∪,	“ <i>animātus</i> .
1st Epitrite	∪ — — —,	“ <i>amāvērunt</i> .
2d Epitrite	— ∪ — —,	“ <i>condūtōrēs</i> .
3d Epitrite	— — ∪ —,	“ <i>discordiās</i> .
4th Epitrite	— — — ∪,	“ <i>addūxistis</i> .

It will be seen that the four-syllabled feet are merely compounds of the two-syllabled.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF VERSE.

603. Verse is distinguished according to the kind of foot which forms its basis; as, *ductylic*, *anapaestic*, *trochaic*, *iambic*, *Ionic*, etc.

* This time is very rare in music.

604. Most kinds of verse are named, according to the number of feet which they contain, *dimeter*, *trimeter*, *tetrameter*, *pentameter*, *hexameter* (i. e., measures of two, three, four, five, or six feet).

Thus, a *dactylic hexameter* is a dactylic line of six feet.

605. *Trochaic*, *iambic*, and *anapaestic* verses are either —

(1.) Reckoned by pairs of feet (*dipodies*), or —

(2.) Named by Latin adjectives in *-ārius*, used as nouns, and denoting the number of feet in the verse.

Thus, an iambic line of six feet is called either an IAMBIC TRIMETER (line of three measures or dipodies) or an IAMBIC SENARIUS (line of six iambic feet); a trochaic line of eight feet is called either a TROCHAIC TETRAMETER or a TROCHAIC OCTONARIUS.

a. A combination of two verses is sometimes called a DISTICH; a half verse, a HEMISTICH.

b. A verse sometimes lacks a syllable at the end, and is then called CATALECTIC; if it is complete it is called ACATALECTIC; if it lacks a whole foot it is sometimes called BRACHYCATALECTIC.

c. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable or foot at the end, and is then called HYPERCATALECTIC or HYPERMETER.

d. The term PENTHEMIMERIS is sometimes used to indicate a portion of a verse consisting of two feet and a half (measured always from the beginning). Less common are HEPTHEMIMERIS (three feet and a half), TRIHEMIMERIS (one foot and a half), and other like terms.

METRICAL ACCENT; THESIS AND ARSIS.

606. One syllable in every foot of a verse receives a greater stress of voice than the others. This is called the metrical accent, or ICTUS.

607. The part of the foot which receives the ictus is called the THESIS, the rest of the foot is called the ARSIS.*

* THESIS (from *τίθημι*, put) means the *downward* movement of the foot in beating time or marching; ARSIS (from *αἶρω*, raise), the *upward* beat or raising of the foot. Through a misunderstanding of the Greek, the meaning of the terms *thesis* and *arsis* has commonly been reversed, the accented part of the verse being called the *arsis* and the unaccented part the *thesis*.

NOTE. The alternation of thesis and arsis produces what is called the RHYTHM of the verse.

CAESURA AND DIAERESIS.

608. (1.) The ending of a word *within* a foot is called CAESURA (*i. e.*, a cutting); the ending of a word coinciding with the *end* of a foot is called DIAERESIS.

(2) In the hexameter and several other kinds of verse some one caesura generally marks a pause in the sense, and is called the PRINCIPAL caesura, or the caesura *of the verse*.

a. In the hexameter the principal caesura occurs most commonly in the third foot; sometimes in the fourth foot. In the latter case there is usually also a slight caesural break in the second foot. A diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot is called the BUCOLIC diaeresis, from its frequent occurrence in Greek pastoral poetry.

b. When a caesura occurs after the thesis of a foot, it is called a MASCULINE caesura; in the middle of the arsis it is called a FEMININE caesura. A masculine caesura in the third foot is sometimes called a PENTHEMIMERIS, or PENTHEMIMERAL caesura.

For examples see the dactylic hexameter (614).

FIGURES OF VERSIFICATION.

609. The following peculiarities in the treatment of words in verse are called FIGURES of versification:—

(1.) A vowel, or *m* preceded by a vowel, is regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or *h*. This elision (striking out) consists in partially suppressing the vowel or syllable, not in wholly omitting it. It is also called SYNALOEPHA (smearing together). Thus:—

Quidve moror? s(ī) omnēs ūn(ō) ōrdin(e) habētis Achī-
vōs. (Verg., *Ae.*, ii., 102.)

Cf. *th'* for *the*, in English.

a. The monosyllables *dō*, *dem*, *spē*, *spem*, *sim*, *stō*, *stem*, *quī* (when plu-

ral), with the interjections *ō*, *heu*, *ā*, *prō*, *vae*, *vāh*, are not subject to elision, though *ō* is sometimes made short.

b. Before a pause, a vowel which would otherwise be elided is sometimes retained, especially in comedy. The succession of vowel sounds* thus caused is called *HIATUS* (gaping); as:—

Ter sunt cōnātī impōnere Pēlio Ossam. (Verg., *G.*, i., 281.)

NOTE. When a long vowel or diphthong ending a Greek word thus remains unelided in the arsis, it is usually made short (*systolē*), as the *o* of *Pēlio* in the example.

c. The elision of a syllable in *m* is sometimes called *ECTHLIPSIS* (squeezing out).

d. In the early poets final *s* and its preceding vowel were sometimes elided before a vowel, and a vowel before final *s* was not always lengthened when the next word began with a consonant. (Cf. 18, d.)

(2.) Sometimes the vowels *i* and *e* are made partial consonants, thus making one syllable of two. This is called *SYNAERESIS*. Thus:—

Aureā percussum virgā versumque venēnīs.

(Verg., *Ae.*, vii., 190.)

(3.) On the other hand, the resolution of one syllable into two is called *DIAERESIS* or *DIALYSIS*; as, *sil-u-a* for *sil-va*. This is chiefly confined to a few syllables consisting of *v* or *gu*, *qu*, *su*, and a following vowel, and is in most cases really a survival of an earlier form of the given word.

(4.) A short syllable is occasionally lengthened (*diastolē*). This occurs chiefly in the thesis before a caesura.

(5.) A vowel at the end of a verse is occasionally elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next verse. This is called *SYNAPHEIA*. Thus:—

Omnia Mercuriō similis, vōcemque colōrem qu(e)

Et crīnēs flāvōs, etc. (Verg., *Ae.*, iv., 558, 559.)

610. The last syllable of any verse except anapaestic (see 630) may be either long or short indifferently.

611. The metrical reading of verse is called *SCANNING*.

a. Care should be taken in scanning Latin verse not only to

* The case of *m* preceded by a vowel is hardly an exception, because the *m* was so feebly pronounced as merely to nasalize the vowel. (Cf. 18, d.)

mark the feet accurately in regard to quantity and ictus, but also to keep the *words* distinct, observing the pauses as in prose. When the word-accent is at variance with the ictus, the latter is to be made the more prominent.

612. A fixed number of verses occurring in a regularly repeated order, whether the verses be of the same kind or of different kinds, is called a STROPHE or STANZA, and is often named for some poet; as, the *Alcaic* strophe or *Horatian* stanza, the *Sapphic* strophe.

613. A long syllable is properly just twice the length of a short syllable, and all the feet of a verse are of exactly equal length; but:—

a. A long syllable is sometimes lengthened so as to be equivalent to three or even to four short ones, and is then denoted by the signs \sqcup and \sqcup respectively.

b. A rest of the length of one or of two short syllables sometimes occurs at the end of a foot. These rests are denoted by the signs \wedge and $\bar{\wedge}$ respectively.

THE DIFFERENT METRES.

Dactylic Metres.

614. (1.) The DACTYLIC HEXAMETER * consists of six dactyls, of which the last is incomplete.

(2.) For any of the first four feet spondees may be substituted. A spondee rarely occurs as the fifth foot also, and the verse is then called a *spondaic* verse.

NOTE. The principal caesura (marked thus ||) is most commonly after the thesis of the third foot (*penthēmimeris*); often, however, after the thesis of the fourth foot, and then there is usually a lesser caesura in the second foot. In many lines, however, the principal caesura is in the arsis of the third foot (feminine caesura). A *bucolic diaeresis* frequently occurs in pastoral poetry like Virgil's *Eclogues* and *Georgics*.

* Often called the *Heroic Verse*.

The scheme of the metre is therefore as follows : —

♩ ♩ ♩ || ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩*

or musically

♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ |

Thus : —

At tuba | terribi|lem soni|tum || procul | aere ca|nōrō.
(Verg., *Ae.*, ix., 503.)

Intōn|sī crī|nēs || lon|gā cer|vīce flu|ēbant.
(Tibull., iii., 4, 27.)

Lūdere | quae vel|lem || cala|mō per|mīsīt a|grestī.
(Verg., *Ec.*, i., 10.)

Nōn medi|ā dē | gente || Phry|gum exē|disse ne|fandīs.
(Verg., *Ae.*, v., 785.)

Cf. in English : —

Meanwhile, apart, at the head of the hall, the priest and the
herdsman

Sat, conversing together of past and present and future ;
While Evangeline stood like one entranced, for within her
Olden memories rose, and loud in the midst of the music
Heard she the sound of the sea, and an irrepressible sadness
Came o'er her heart, and unseen she stole forth into the gar-
den. (Longfellow's *Evangeline*.)

NOTE. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recur-
rence of dactyls ; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees ; as : —

Quadrupē|dante : pu|trem soni|tū || quatit | ūngula | campum.
(Verg., *Ae.*, viii., 596.)

Illī in|ter sē|sē || mā|gnā vī | bracchia | tollunt.
(Verg., *Ae.*, viii., 452.)

615. The ELEGIAC stanza consists of a dactylic hexa-
meter alternating with a verse consisting of two half
hexameters each of which has its last foot incomplete
(*i. e.*, one long syllable).

a. Of the half verses only the first admits a spondee instead

* The last foot is strictly ♩ ♩ ♩.

of a dactyl, and both must end with the end of a word. The scheme is therefore as follows : —

$\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$
 $\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$

and musically the half verses are represented thus : —

$\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$

Thus : —

Flēbilis | indī|gnōs || Ele|gēia | solve ca|pillōs
 Āh nimis | ex vērō || nunc tibi | nōmen e|rit.

(Ov., *Am.*, iii., 9, 3.)

Cf. in English : —

Lo ! in a land that is new, a new-born Salamis waits you.

Hearts that often ere now perils have brav'd at my side
 Graver by far, — I pledge you. To-night be merry. To-mor-
 row

Speed once more our barks over the measureless sea.

(S. H. Hodgson : *Trans. of Hor.*, *Od.*, i., 7.)

Other dactylic verses are rare. The following occur in strophes : —

616. The **ALCMANIAN** strophe consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a dactylic tetrameter. The scheme is : —

$\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$
 $\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$

Thus : —

Ambigu|am tel|lūre no|vā || Sala|mīna fu|tūram.

O for|tēs pē|iōraque | passī

Mēcum | saepe vi|rī, || nunc | vīnō | pellite | cūrās ;

Crās in|gēns ite|rābimus | aequor.

(Hor., *Od.*, i., 7 ; the original of the selection under 615.)

617. The **FIRST ARCHILOCHIAN STROPHE** consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a dactylic penthemimeris (two feet and a half). The scheme is : —

$\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$
 $\text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐} \text{┐}$

Thus: —

Frīgora | mītē|scunt || Zephy|rīs, vēr | prōterit | aetās
 Interi|tūra, si|mul
 Pōmifer | autum|nus || frū|gēs ef|fūderit, | et mox
 Brūma re|currit in|ers. (Hor., *Od.*, iv., 7.)

Trochaic and Iambic Metres.

618. The longer trochaic and iambic measures belong chiefly to dramatic poetry. For their understanding the following preliminary points are necessary: —

(1.) When a spondee is substituted for a trochee or an iambus, it loses a portion of its full time, and is called an *IRRATIONAL SPONDEE*.* This is represented by the sign $- >$ (or musically ♩ ♩̣) when it stands for a *trochee*, and by the sign $> -$ when it stands for an *iambus*.

(2.) When a long syllable in a foot is exchanged for two short syllables, the foot is said to be *resolved*, and the resulting foot is called a *resolution* of the other foot. Thus, a tribrach (∪ ∪ ∪) is the resolution of a trochee or an iambus. A spondee (— —) may be resolved into a dactyl (— ∪ ∪) or an anapaest (∪ ∪ —), and these last into a proceleusmatic (∪ ∪ ∪ ∪).

(3.) All of the above feet may, therefore, occur in trochaic and iambic measures. When they are used in trochaic verse they have the ictus on their first syllable; when used in iambic verse, the spondee, dactyl, and tribrach have the ictus on the second syllable, the anapaest and the (rare) proceleusmatic on the third.

(4.) A verse may have an introductory syllable or two, like the introductory notes before the first full bar in music. These introductory syllables are called *ANACRUSIS*.

Trochaic Metres.

619. The most common trochaic measures are the *SEP-TENARIUS* (*tetrameter catalectic*), and the *OCTONARIUS* (*tetrameter acatalectic*).

* Sometimes also an *irrational trochee*, or *irrational iambus*, respectively.

a. In each of these, as used by the early dramatic poets, any complete foot may be resolved into a tribrach, and for any complete foot but the last the spondee and its resolutions may be substituted.* These irregularities are, however, most freely used in the first and fifth feet. In the late drama the substitutions are confined to the second foot of each dipody. An anapaest is not used immediately after a dactyl.

b. The commonest pause is a diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot, and in that case the fourth foot must not be a dactyl. Otherwise a break almost invariably occurs at the end of the fifth foot, generally with a lesser break *in* the fourth or *after* the third.

NOTE. The ictus on the second foot of each dipody is less strong than that on the first foot, and is left unmarked in the scheme of the metres.

620. The possibilities of the septenarius may be represented by the following scheme:—

$\begin{array}{cccc|cccc|cccc|cc} \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} \\ \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} \end{array}$

or musically —

$\begin{array}{cccc|cccc|cccc|cccc} \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} & \text{—} \end{array}$

Thus:—

Nūpti|ās do|mīad pa|rārī || mīssast | ancil|laīlīcō.

(Ter., *An.*, 514.)

Ī sā|nē :egō tēex|ercē|bōhodiē,ut || dīgnus | es, sili|cerni|um,
Aeschi|nus odi|ōsē | cēssat ; || prandi|um cor|rumpi|tur ;

Ctēsi|phōautemīn a|mōre | tōtus : || ego iam | prōspici|am mi|hī.

(Ter., *Ad.*, lines 587–589.)

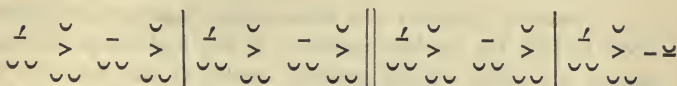
Cf. in English:—

Then the dreary shadows scattered, like a cloud in morning's
breeze,

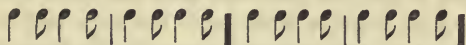
And a low deep voice within me seemèd whispering words like
these. (Whittier's *Cassandra Southwick.*)

* But the proceleusmatic is very rare in Plautus and not found in Terence.

621. The possibilities of the octonarius may be represented by the following scheme: —



or musically —



Thus: —

Cēnse|ō. Sed | heus tū. | Quid vīs ? || Cēnsēn | posse | mē|offīr-
māre. (Ter., *Enn.*, 217.)

Obse|crō popu|lārēs, | ferte || miserō|at|que|inno|centi|au|xilium :
Subve|nīte|ino|pī : | Ōti|ōsē ; || nunci|am īli|cō|hīc cōn|siste,
Quid re|spectās ? | nīl pe|rīclīst : || numquam, | dum|ego|ade-
rō, | hīc tē|tanget. (Ter., *Ad.*, lines 155–157.)

Cf. in English: —

Beams of noon, like burning lances, through the tree tops flash
and glisten,

As she stands before her lover, with raised face to look and lis-
ten. (Whittier's *Slaves of Martinique.*)

622. A TROCHAIC DIMETER (catalectic) (3 1-2 feet) occurs in the later tragedy (used strophically). The second foot may be a spondee or dactyl. Thus: —

Lēnis | āc modi | cē flu|ēns
Aura | nec ver|gēns la|tus. (Sen., *Oed.*, line 887.)

NOTE. This measure also enters into the formation of the HIPPONACTEAN strophe. (See 650.) Other trochaic verses are occasionally found, chiefly as portions only of lines.

Iambic Metres.

623. The IAMBIC TRIMETER (*sēnārius*) is the most common of all dramatic measures, but the SEPTENARIUS

(*tetrameter catalectic*) and OCTONARIUS (*tetrameter acatalectic*) are also frequently used.

a. Speaking generally, the same substitutions and resolutions occur as with the trochaic measures, in any foot except the last among the comic writers, confined mostly to the first foot of each dipody in other kinds of poetry. The proceleusmatic occurs chiefly in the first foot, and then the third syllable (ictus syllable) must begin a word, and the ictus and word accent must coincide. An anapaest immediately after a dactyl is avoided.

624. The SENARIUS consists of six iambic feet. The regular caesura is after the first syllable of the third foot (*penthemimeral*). Otherwise, after the arsis of the fourth foot there is almost always a caesura, often with a diaeresis after the second foot.

The scheme is as follows : —



Thus : —

Phasē|lus il|le || quem | vidē|tis ho|spitēs. (Catull., 4, 1.)

Storax.|Nōn redi|it || hāc | nocteā | cēnāAe|schinus

Neque ser|volō|rum || quis|quam, quīad|vorsumī|erant.

Profec|tōhīc vērē dī|cunt : || sīab|sīs ūs|pīam.

(Ter., *Ad.*, lines 26-28.)

Cf. in English : —

O light immortal, winds on wings of swiftmess borne,

O river sources, and the countless flashing smile

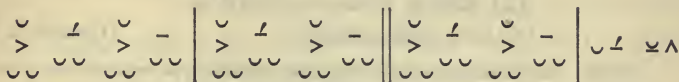
Of ocean's wavelets, universal mother earth.

(L. Dyer, *Trans. of Aesch., Prom.*, 88 ff.)

625. The SEPTENARIUS consists of seven and a half iambic feet. The regular break is after the fourth foot, and this foot must then be a real iambus. If this break

does not occur, there is always a break after the arsis of the fifth foot.

The scheme is as follows : —



Thus : —

Salū|tant, ad | cēnam | vocant, || adven|tum grā|tulan|tur.
(Ter., *Eun.*, 259.)

Sed quid hoc | est? vide|ōn ego | Getam || curren|tem hūc ad-
veni|re?

Is est i|psus, ei, | timeō | misèr, || quam hīc mihi | nunc nūn|tiet
rem.
(Ter., *Phorm.*, lines 177, 178.)

Cf. in English * —

In Scarlet towne, where I was borne,

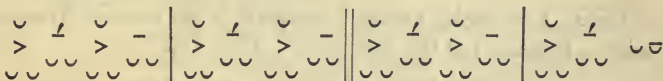
There was a faire maid dwellin,

Made every youth crye “ Wel-awaye ! ”

Her name was Barbara Allen. (Percy's *Reliques*.)

626. The OCTONARIUS consists of eight iambic feet. When the break after the fourth foot occurs without elision, this foot must be a real iambus, as in the septenarius.

The scheme is as follows : —



Thus : —

Domum | modō i|bō, ut ad|parē|tur || dī|cam, atque hūc | re-
nūn|tiō.
(Ter., *An.*, 594.)

Abs quī|vīs homi|ne, quomst | opus, || benefici|um accipe|re
gau|deās ;

Vērūm enī | vērō id|dēmum | iūvat, || sī quem ae|quomst
face|re is bene|facit.
(Ter., *Ad.*, lines 254, 255.)

* Written as two lines.

Cf. in English : * —

On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow;
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly. (Campbell.)

NOTE. Iambic measures are sometimes regarded as trochaic measures with anacrusis, and may then be expressed musically as follows : —

Senarius : —

$\cup \colon \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \parallel \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad | \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \wedge$
 $\text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} |$

Septenarius : —

$\cup \colon \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad | \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \parallel \cup \quad | \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad | \text{—} \cup$
 $\text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} |$

Octonarius : —

$\cup \colon \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad | \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \parallel \cup \quad | \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad | \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \wedge$
 $\text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} | \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} |$

627. The pure IAMBIC TRIMETER (*i. e.*, without any resolutions or substitutions) is first found in Catullus. Thus : —

Phasē|lus il|le, || quem | vidē|tis, ho|spitēs
Ait | fuis|se || nā|vium | celer|rimus. (Catull., 4.)

628. The CHOLIAMBIC † measure is an iambic trimeter with a trochee for the last foot. Thus : —

$\cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \parallel \text{—} \cup \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—}$

as : —

Miser | Catul|le || dē|sinās | inep|tīre
Et quod | vidēs | peris|se || per|ditum | dūcās. (Catull., 8.)

a. The choliambic may also be represented metrically thus : —

$\cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \parallel \text{—} \cup \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—}$

* Written as two lines.

† *I. e.*, lame iambic. It is also called SCAZON (hobbling).

629. The IAMBIC DIMETER (catalectic) is found in the later tragedies. It is also called the *Anacreontic*, and is used strophically. Thus:—

Ut ti|gris or|ba gnā|tis. (Sen., *Med.*, 863.)

NOTE. Other iambic measures occasionally occur, chiefly as parts of strophes or as single lines, especially the dimeter acatalectic (quaternarius) and trimeter catalectic. See 650 ff.

Anapaestic, Bacchiac, and Cretic Metres.

Anapaestic, bacchiac, and cretic measures are mostly confined to the early comedy writers (especially Plautus) and the later tragic poets. The common forms are as follows:—

Anapaestic Metres.

630. In anapaestic verse a spondee, a dactyl, or a proceleusmatic may be substituted for an anapaest. There is a regular break after the fourth foot in the septenarius and octonarius.

(1.) Septenarius.

Quid ais? | viro mē | malo male | nūptam. || Satin au|dīs quae il-
lic loqui|tur?

Satis. Sī | sapiam, hinc | intrō abe|am, ubi mihi || bene sit.

Mane: male e|rit poti|us. (Plaut., *Menaech.*, 602, 603.)

Cf. in English: *—

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,

As his corse to the rampart we hurried;

Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot

O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

(Wolfe's *Burial of Sir John Moore*.)

(2.) Octonarius.

Mille mo|dīs amor | ignō|randust, || procul abhi|bendust |
atque ap|standust;

Nam qui in a|mōrem | praecipi|tāvit, || pēius pe|rit quasi | saxō |
saliat. (Plaut., *Trin.*, lines 264, 265.)

* Written in two lines.

Cf. in English : * —

The mistletoe hung in the castle hall,
And the holly branch shone on the old oak wall;
The baron's retainers were blithe and gay,
Keeping their Christmas holiday.

(See Wadham's *Versification*, p. 65.)

(3.) Dimeter acatalectic (quaternārius).

Haec ego | quom cum̄ani|mō meō | reputō
Ubi quīe|get, quam | preti sit | parvī
Apage,̄amor, | tē, nōn | places : nīl | tēūtor.

(Plaut., *Trin.*, lines 256–258.)

Cf. in English : * —

'T is the last rose of summer
Left blooming alone ;
All her lovely companions
Are faded and gone.

(T. Moore.)

(4.) Dimeter catalectic (paroemiac).

Quam̄hic rem | gerat ani|mum̄advor|tam.

(Plaut., *Trin.*, line 843.)

NOTE. Other varieties also occur, as the *trimeter catalectic* and the *monometer*. This last, like the paroemiac, is used mostly as the last line of a series of longer anapaestic verses.

Bacchiac and Cretic Metres.

631. i. In bacchiac and cretic measures either (but not both) of the long syllables may be resolved, or a molossus (— — —) may be substituted.

ii. The TETRAMETER is the most usual variety in each of these measures. A break is most common after the second foot. Thus : —

(1.) Bacchiac tetrameter. [Ictus ∪ ∟ —]

Adcūrā|tēagatur, || doctēet dī|ligenter,
Tantāincep|ta rēs est : || haud somni|culōsēhōc

* Written in two lines.

Agendumst. || Erō⌒ut me | volēs es|se. Spērō,
 Nam tū nunc | vidēs prō | tuō cā|rō capite
 Carum⌒offer|re mē meum | caput vī|litātī.

(Plaut., *Capt.*, lines 226–230.)

(2.) Cretic tetrameter. [Ictus ˘ ˘ –]

Cōpiāst, | atque⌒eā || facitis nōs | conpotēs,
 Sēcēde⌒hūc | nunciam, || sī vidē|tur, procul,
 Nē⌒arbitrī | dicta no||stra⌒arbitrā|rī queant
 Neu permā|net palam⌒haec || nostra fal|lācia.

(Plaut., *Capt.*, lines 217–220.)

a. The last foot is often incomplete (*tetrameter catalectic*);
 as: —

Meō modō⌒et | mōribus | vīvitō⌒an|tīquīs.

(Plaut., *Trin.*, line 295.)

NOTE. In comedy the iambic senarius is used for the scenes of spoken dialogue; the iambic septenarius and octonarius and the trochaic septenarius are used in more or less long passages, which were delivered as *recitative* with musical accompaniment. The trochaic octonarius, the anapaestic, bacchiac, cretic, and the shorter trochaic and iambic measures are used for strophic groups of lines (called *CANTICA*) which were regularly sung to music.

Choriambic and Ionic Metres.

632. The CHORIAMBIC TETRAMETER is occasionally found. [Ictus ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘] Thus: —

Omne nemus | cum fluviīs | omne canat | profundum.

(Claud., *Nūpt. Hon.*, ii., 4.)

NOTE. Many of the logaoedic measures (see 643) are sometimes scanned as choriambic.

633. The LESSER IONIC verse is found in one ode of Horace. [Ictus ˘ ˘ ˘ –] A strophe consists of ten feet.
 Thus: —

Miserārum⌒est | neque⌒amōrī | dare lūdum | neque dulcī
 Mala vīnō⌒aut | lavere⌒aut ex|animārī
 Metuentēs | patruae ver|bera linguae. (Hor., *Od.*, iii., 12.)

634. The GREATER IONIC (*Sotadean*) was used by Ennius, Martial, and others. [Ictus $\angle - \cup \cup$]

a. The early poets use double trochees and other equivalent feet instead of the Ionic, and resolve a long syllable of the Ionic freely, but Martial and the later poets confine themselves chiefly to one resolution in a verse, and use only the double trochee as a substitution. Thus : —

Nam quam varia | sint genera po|ēmatōrum, | Balbī,
Quamque longē | distincta ali|a ab aliīs sīs, | nōsce.

(Acc., *Didasc.*)

Hās, cum gemi|nā compede, | dēdicat ca|tēnās,
Sātūrne, ti|bī Zoilus, | ānulōs pri|ōrēs. (Martial.)

PECULIARITIES OF EARLY VERSIFICATION.

Besides the feeble force of *s* in early prosody (see 609, 1, *d*), the following points should be noted : —

635. The originally long quantity of certain final syllables, which afterwards became short, was sometimes retained. So —

(1.) -es (gen. -itis) ; as, *superstēs*.

(2.) -or (gen. -ōris) ; as, *sorōr*.

(3.) Verb endings in -r, -s, -t ; as, *regrediōr*, *augeāt*, *fuerīs*, *monuīt*.

a. These irregularities occur chiefly in Plautus.

NOTE. The final *a* of the feminine singular in nouns and adjectives of the first declension has also often been measured long in early Latin verse ; as, *epistulā*, *bonā* ; but many of the best authorities now deny this quantity.

636. Words of two syllables, with the first syllable short, often shorten a long final vowel ; as, *novō* ; *levī* ; *iubē*.*

a. This shortening is particularly common before a syllable which has the verse accent ; as, *darī mī*.

* This is due to the influence of the word-accent. It is much easier after a *short* accented syllable to pronounce a final vowel short than long.

637. Other long syllables are not infrequently shortened when they stand after a short syllable* and before a syllable which has the verse accent; as, *negāt Phā'nium*; *vel ōcciditō*; *senēctū'tem*.

638. Also after a short monosyllable which has the verse accent, a syllable may be shortened. Thus: *séd id quod*; *quíd istūc*; *ád ipsam*.

a. So, too, the second syllable of a word of several syllables, if the first is short and has the verse accent; as, *vōlūntāte*.

639. Monosyllables ending in a long vowel (or -m) are often employed before a vowel as the thesis of a foot, being *shortened* instead of *elided*. Thus: *quī aget*; *nē agās*; *quam egō*.

640. Vowels which ordinarily make a syllable of their own are often run together with a following vowel (even though h intervene), thus making one syllable of two. This is called SYNIZĒSIS or SYNAERESIS. Thus: *antēhāc*, *āibam* (*aibās*, etc., always), *mēus*, *tūus*, *fūisse*. (Cf. 609, 2.)

641. Doubled consonants were not regularly written (or sounded) in the time of Plautus, and thus words like *ille*, *immō*, *quippe*, are used by him with the first syllable short.

a. Ennius first wrote doubled consonants regularly; and his contemporary Terence rarely neglects their effect upon the quantity of a syllable; when he does so, it is almost always at the beginning of an iambic verse.

b. Before the combination, mute and liquid, short vowels always retain their natural (short) quantity in Plautus and Terence; as, *sācrī*, *inpētrō*.

* Whether in the same word or not. In words of more than two syllables, however, only the first two syllables seem to suffer this shortening.

Saturnian Verse.

NOTE. The earliest Latin verse was not, like the verses already treated, an imitation of the Greek, but a product of Italian soil. It is called SATURNIAN verse. Scholars are not agreed as to certain important points in its character, but it is generally admitted that the accent (ictus) has much more prominence as compared with quantity than in the Greek metres.

642. SATURNIAN verse consists of two half verses with a break between them, on the following scheme (iambic dimeter catalectic + trochaic tripod) : —

υ ˊ υ ˊ υ ˊ ≡ || ˊ υ ˊ υ ˊ υ ˊ

Thus : —

Dabunt | malum | Metel|lī || Naevi|ō po|ētae.

Cornē|lius | Lūcī|us || Scīpi|ō Bar|bātus

Gnaevōd | patre | prōgnā|tus || fortis | vir sapi|ēnsque

Quōius | formā | virtū|tei || parisu|mā|fuit.

Cf. in English : —

The king was in the parlor, counting out his money ;

The queen was in the kitchen, eating bread and honey.

a. It is perhaps best to consider the last syllable of each half verse an accented one.* Thus : —

υ ˊ υ ˊ υ ˊ ˊ || ˊ υ ˊ υ ˊ ˊ

NOTE 1. The Saturnian is found chiefly in inscriptions. *Hiatus* is allowed between the two halves of the verse. The unaccented parts (arses) of the verse consist of a long syllable or a short syllable or two short syllables. Sometimes an arsis disappears, as in the last foot but one in the last line above. The accented parts (theses) must be either one long syllable or two short syllables. Alliteration is common.

NOTE 2. Another view now frequently held is that of O. Keller, that "quantity" has nothing to do with the metre, and that the accent coin-

* See Westphal, *Gr. Metrik*, ii., 42, and R. Klotz, *Jahresber.* 1883, p. 323.

cides always with the word-accent. Each half verse always begins then with an accent.* Thus : —

Dábunt málum Metélli || Naéviō poétæ.

Between the second accented syllable and the third, two unaccented syllables always occur; in other cases generally only one unaccented syllable. There are always three accented syllables in the first half verse, generally three in the second; sometimes, however, only two in the second, and then usually an unaccented syllable before that half verse (*anacrūsís*). The arsis even of the last foot occasionally consists of two syllables.

Logaoedic Verse.

643. LOGAOEDIC verse is a name given to a kind of verse consisting of dactyls and trochees (chiefly irrational), from the resemblance to prose caused by slight inequalities in the time of the feet (from λόγος and ἀοιδή, prose-song).

a. The irrational trochee (or spondee) is thus represented: —>; or musically, ♩ ♩; the irrational dactyl is called a CYCLIC dactyl, and represented thus: ~ ~, or musically, ♩³ ♩ ♩, or nearly ♩ ♩ ♩.

644. Logaoedic lines consist almost always of one dactyl and two, three, or four trochees. The dactyl occupies any foot but the last.† Thus : —

Logaoedic Dipody	~ ~ — ~	(Adonic)
Logaoedic Tripody	~ ~ — ~ — ~	(1st Pherecratic)
	— ~ ~ ~ — ~	(2d Pherecratic)
Logaoedic Tetrapody	~ ~ — ~ — ~ — ~	(1st Glyconic)
	— ~ ~ ~ — ~ — ~	(2d Glyconic)
	— ~ — ~ ~ ~ — ~	(3d Glyconic)
Logaoedic Pentapody	~ ~ — ~ ~ ~ — ~ — ~	(Lesser Sapphic)
	— ~ ~ ~ — ~ — ~ — ~	(Phalæccian)

a. These lines are used, either as complete in themselves or combined into longer lines, to make various forms of (chiefly strophic) verse, as in the following sections.

* See O. Keller, *Der Saturnische Vers als rhythmisch erwiesen*.

† One logaoedic tetrapody occurs with two dactyls, the lesser Alcaic, thus : ~ ~ ~ ~ — ~ — ~

Metres of Horace and Catullus.

645. The ASCLEPIADEAN verse is used in five varieties, as follows:—

(1.) LESSER (or 1ST) ASCLEPIADEAN (2d Pherecratic + 1st Pherecratic). [Not strophic.] Thus:—

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ || ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

or musically: ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ ˘ | ˘ | ˘ ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ |

Maecē|nās ata|vīs || ēdite | rēgi|bus. (Hor., *Od.*, i., 1.)

Horace, *Odes*, i., 1; iii., 30; iv., 8.

NOTE. It will be seen that the last foot of the first half of the line consists of one long syllable protracted into the time of three short ones (cf. 613, *a*), and that the last foot in the line contains a rest. Similar phenomena of course occur in the other logaoedic verses given below.

(2.) SECOND ASCLEPIADEAN (three lesser Asclepiadean lines followed by a second Glyconic). [Strophic.] Thus:—

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ || ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ || ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ || ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

The last verse is musically: ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ |

Scribē|ris Vari|ō || fortis et | hosti|um

Victor, | Maeoni|i || carminis | āli|tī,

Quam rem | cumque fe|rōx || nāvibus | aut e|ques

Miles | tē duce | gesse|rit.

Horace, *Odes*, i., 6, 15, 24, 33; ii., 12; iii., 10, 16; iv., 5, 12.

(3.) THIRD ASCLEPIADEAN (second Glyconic alternating with a lesser Asclepiadean). [Strophic.] Thus:—

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

⌋ > ˘ ˘ ˘ || ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘

Sic tē | dīva po|tēns Cy|prī

Sic frā|trēs Hele|nae, || lūcida | sīde|ra,

Ventō|rumque re|gat pa|ter

Obstrīc|tīs ali|īs || praeter I|āpy|ga.

Horace, *Odes*, i., 3, 13, 19, 36; iii., 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv., 1, 3.

(4.) FOURTH ASCLEPIADEAN (first two lines lesser Asclepiadean, third line 2d Pherecratic, fourth line 2d Glyconic). [Strophic.] Thus : —

$\text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \parallel \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \wedge$
 $\text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \parallel \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \wedge$
 $\text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \wedge$
 $\text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \wedge$

The last two lines are, musically :

$\text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot |$
 $\text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot |$

Quis mul|tā graci|lis || tē puer | in ro|sā
 Perfū|sus liqui|dīs || urget o|dōri|bus
 Grātō, |Pyrrha, sub |an|trō ?
 Cui flā|vam reli|gās co|mam.

Horace, *Odes*, i., 5, 14, 21, 23 ; iii., 7, 13 ; iv., 13.

(5.) GREATER (or 5TH) ASCLEPIADEAN (2d Pherecratic + Adonic + 1st Pherecratic). [Not strophic.] Thus : —

$\text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \parallel \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \parallel \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \wedge$
 or $\text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot |$

Tū nē | quaesie|ris, || scīre ne|fās, || quem mihi, | quem ti|bī.

Horace, *Odes*, i., 11, 18 ; iv., 10 ; Catullus, 30.

646. The SAPPIC strophe is used in two varieties, as follows : —

(1.) LESSER SAPPIC (first three lines lesser Sapphic, fourth line Adonic). Thus : —

$\text{—} \cup \text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup$
 $\text{—} \cup \text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup$
 $\text{—} \cup \text{—} > \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup \text{—} \cup \cup$
 $\text{—} \cup \text{—} \cup \text{—} \cup$
 or $\text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot$
 $\text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot | \text{—} \cdot \text{—} \cdot$

NOTE. There is usually a caesura after the long syllable of the dactyl.

Īam sa|tis ter|rīs || nivis | atque | dīrae
 Grandi|nis mī|sit || pater | et ru|bente
 Dexte|rā sa|crās || iacu|lātus | arcēs
 Terruit|urbem.

Cf. in English : —

All the night sleep came not upon my eyelids,
 Shed not dew, nor shook nor unclosed a feather,
 Yet with lips shut close and with eyes of iron
 Stood and beheld me.

(Swinburne's *Sapphics*.)

Horace, *Odes*, i., 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv., 2, 6, 11; and the *Carm. Saec.*; Catullus, 11, 51.

NOTE 1. Catullus, in the only two poems which he wrote in the Sapphic metre, differs from Horace in occasionally using a *real* trochee in the second foot, and in sometimes neglecting the caesura, or putting it between the short syllables of the dactyl.

NOTE 2. The last two lines are occasionally run together by both Horace and Catullus; as : —

Lābi|tur rīpā || Iove | nōn pro|banteCu-
 xōrius | amnis. (Hor., *Od.*, i., 2, lines 19–20.)

NOTE 3. The Sapphic line is sometimes divided as follows : —

┌┐ ┌> ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐
 or ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪

(2.) GREATER SAPPHIC (1st Pherecratic [Aristophanic] alternating with a greater Sapphic line (*i. e.*, 3d Glyconic + 1st Pherecratic). Thus : —

┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐
 ┌┐ ┌> ┌┐ ┌┐ || ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐ ┌┐
 or ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪
 ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪

Lȳdia | dīc per | om|nēs

Tē de|ōs ō|rō Syba|rīn || cūr prope|rēs a|man|dō.

Horace, *Odes*, i. 8.

647. The ALCAIC strophe * consists of two greater Alcaic lines (*i. e.*, lesser Sapphic lines, catalectic with anacrusis), a trochaic dimeter with anacrusis, and a lesser Alcaic. Thus : —

◡ : ◡ ◡ ◡ > ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ^
 ◡ : ◡ ◡ ◡ > ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ^
 ◡ : ◡ ◡ ◡ > ◡ ◡ ◡ >
 ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡

or ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪
 ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪
 ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪
 ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪

Vi:dēs ut | altā | stet nivē | candi|dum
 Sō:racte, | nec iam | sūstine|ant o|nus
 Sil:vae la|bōran|tēs, ge|lūque
 Flūmina | cōnstitute|rint a|cūtō.

Cf. in English : —

O mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies,
 O skill'd to sing of Time or Eternity,
 God-gifted organ-voice of England,
 Milton, a name to resound for ages.

(Tennyson's *Ode to Milton*.)

Horace, *Odes*, i., 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv., 4, 9, 14, 15.

648. The GLYCONIC-PHERECRATIC verse is used in two forms by Catullus, as follows : —

(1.) A strophic form (consisting of three, or four, 2d Glyconic verses and one 2d Pherecratic). Thus : —

 ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ — ^
 ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ — ^
 ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ — ^
 ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡ — ^

* Also called the HORATIAN stanza, because Horace uses it more than any of the other logaoedic verses.

Dīā|nae sumus | in fi|dē
 Puel|lae et pue|rī|inte|grī :
 Dīā|nam pue|rī|inte|grī
 Puel|laeque ca|nā|mus. (Catull., 34.)

Nīl po|test sine | tē Ve|nus,
 Fāma | quod bona | compro|bet,
 Commo|dī cape|re at po|test
 Tē vo|lente. Quis | huic de|ō
 Compa|rārier | au|sit? (Catull., 61.)

Catullus, 34, 61.

NOTE. The first foot is usually a trochee, but sometimes a spondee, or even (as in the first strophe above) an iambus. Cf. Greek usage. One verse (61, 25) has a spondee instead of the dactyl.

(2.) A form not strophic, called the *PRIAPEAN* verse, in which the Glyconic and Pherecratic make together a single line. Thus :—

┌ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ || ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘
 Ō Co|lōnia, | quae cu|pis || ponte | lūdere | lon|gō.

Catullus, 17.

649. The *PHALAECIAN* verse (*hendecasyllable*) is a logaoedic pentapody with dactyl in the second place. Thus :—

˘ > ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘ ˘
 Cui dō|nō lepi|dum no|vum li|bellum.

Cf. in English :

Look, I come to the test, a tiny poem
 All composed in a metre of Catullus.

(Tennyson's *Hendecasyllabics*.)

Catullus, 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 32, 33, 35, 36, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 58b.

NOTE. The first foot is occasionally a real trochee, or even an iambus.

Other kinds of verse (not logaoedic) are used by Horace or Catullus as follows:—

Strophic Metres.

650. The HIPPONACTEAN strophe consists of a trochaic dimeter catalectic alternating with an iambic trimeter catalectic. Thus:—

$\text{♂} \cup \quad \cup \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \quad \cup \wedge$
 $\cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \parallel \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \wedge$
 Nōn e|bur ne|que aure|um
 Meā | renī|det|in|domō | lacū|nar.

Horace, *Odes*, ii., 18.

651. The PYTHIAMBIC strophe consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with an iambic dimeter acatalectic. Thus:—

$\text{♂} \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \quad \text{♂} \parallel \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup$
 $\cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup$
 Mollis in|ertia | cūr || tān|tam dif|fūderit | īmīs
 Oblī|viō|nem sēn|sibus.

Horace, *Ep.*, 14, 15.

652. The 2D PYTHIAMBIC strophe consists of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a pure iambic trimeter (acatalectic). Thus:—

$\text{♂} \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \quad \text{♂} \parallel \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup \cup \quad \text{♂} \cup$
 $\cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \parallel \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup$
 Altera | iam teri|tur || bel|līs cī|vīlibus | aetās,
 Suīs | et i|psa || Rō|ma vī|ribus | ruit.

Horace, *Ep.*, 16.

653. The IAMBIC strophe consists of an iambic trimeter alternating with an iambic dimeter. Thus:—

$\cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \parallel \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup$
 $\cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup \quad \cup \text{♂} \quad \cup \cup$
 Ībīs | Libur|nīs || in|ter al|ta nā|vium,
 Amī|ce, prō|pūgnā|cula.

Horace, *Ep.*, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10.



654. The ARCHILOCHIAN strophe occurs in four forms, as follows :—

(1.) 1ST ARCHILOCHIAN (see 617).

Horace, *Odes*, iv., 7.

(2.) 2D ARCHILOCHIAN (consisting of a dactylic hexameter alternating with a so-called iambelic line [*i. e.*, an iambic dimeter + a dactylic penthemimeris]). Thus :—

$\text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \parallel \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \cup \quad \text{—} \cup$
 $\cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \parallel \quad \text{—} \cup \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \cup \quad \cup$

Horrida | tempe|stās || cae|lum con|trāxit, et | imbrēs

Nivēs|que dē|dūcunt | Iovem ; || nunc mare, | nunc silu|ae.

Horace, *Ep.*, 13.

(3.) 3D ARCHILOCHIAN (consisting of an iambic trimeter and a so-called elegiambic line [*i. e.*, a dactylic penthemimeris + an iambic dimeter]). Thus :—

$\cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \parallel \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \cup$
 $\text{—} \cup \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \cup \quad \text{—} \parallel \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \cup$

Pettī, | nihil | mē || sic|ut an|teā | iuvat

Scribere | versicu|lōs || amō|re per|cursum | gravī.

Horace, *Ep.*, 11.

(4.) 4TH ARCHILOCHIAN (consisting of a greater Archilochian [*i. e.*, a dactylic tetrameter + a trochaic tripody] alternating with an iambic trimeter catalectic). Thus :—

$\text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \parallel \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \parallel \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup \quad \text{—} \cup$
 $\cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \parallel \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \text{—} \quad \cup \wedge$

Solvitur | āeris hi|ems || grā|tā vice || vēris | et Fa|vōnī,

Trahunt|que sic|cās || mā|chinae | carī|nās.

Horace, *Odes*, i., 4.

655. ALCMANIAN strophe. (See 616.)

Horace, *Odes*, i., 7, 28; *Ep.*, 12.

656. LESSER IONIC strophe [*Ionic ā minōre*]. (See 633.)

Horace, *Odes*, iii., 12.

Metres Not Strophic.

657. The GALLIAMBIC metre is a lesser Ionic tetrameter, employed by Catullus with various irregularities. The scheme is as follows : —

$\cup\cup$ $\text{—}\cup$ | $\text{—}\cup$ $\text{—}\text{—}$ || $\cup\cup$ $\text{—}\cup$ | $\cup\cup\cup\text{—}$

Super alta | vectus Attis || celerī ra|te maria.

Catullus, 63.

NOTE 1. The first two Ionic feet always suffer anacalasis, so called, *i. e.*, two trochees are substituted for the last two (long) syllables of the first and the first two (short) of the second. Thus, instead of $\cup\cup$ $\text{—}\text{—}$ | $\cup\cup$ $\text{—}\text{—}$ is read $\cup\cup$ $\text{—}\cup$ | $\text{—}\cup$ $\text{—}\text{—}$. An irregular anacalasis takes place in the second two Ionic feet (see the scheme).

NOTE 2. For the (apparent) pyrrhic thus resulting at the beginning of each half of the verse may be substituted a spondee or a proceleusmatic; for the first pyrrhic, also a tribrach.

NOTE 3. The variation of the ictus from the ordinary ictus of the lesser Ionic foot should be observed, as given in the scheme above.

658. The following measures, already treated, are also used : —

(1.) Pure IAMBIC TRIMETER. (See 627.)

Horace, *Ep.*, 17; Catullus, 4, 29, 52.*

(2.) CHOLIAMBIC. (See 628.)

Catullus, 8, 22, 31, 37, 39, 44, 59, 60.

(3.) IAMBIC SEPTENARIUS. (See 625.)

Catullus, 25.

(4.) DACTYLIC HEXAMETER. (See 614.)

Horace, *Satires and Epistles*; Catullus, 62, 64.

(5.) ELEGIAC. (See 615.)

Catullus, 65, 66, 67, 68, and 69–116.

NOTE. The spondee may be used instead of an iambus in the metres treated in 650–658 only in the first and third feet, as a rule. In the iambic strophe, the 3d Archilochian, and the choliambic, resolution is occasionally employed. The trochaic lines or part lines admit no substitutions or resolutions. The iambic alternate line in the second Pythiambic strophe is also a *pure* line (*i. e.*, has only the iambus).

* This quatrain, however, has spondees in the first and third feet of two of the lines.

APPENDIX.

GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

NOTE. Most of the technical terms used to name the so-called **FIGURES OF SPEECH** have now gone out of use,* but the following are still met with often enough to make it worth while to define them briefly.

+ 659. (1.) **ALLITERATION** is the repetition of words or syllables beginning with the same letter (or sound) ; as : —

Ō Tite, tūte, Tatī, tibī tanta, tyranne, tulistī (Ennius apud Cornif., *Rhet.*, 4, 18).

(2.) **AMPHIBOLIA** is the use of equivocal words or constructions ; as : —

Gallus = “a Gaul” or “a cock ;” *āiō tē, Aeacidā, Rōmānōs vincere posse*, I say that you, O son of Aeacus, the Romans can conquer (Enn., apud Cic., *Dīv.*, ii., 56, 116).

+ (3.) **ANACOLŪTHON** is a disagreement in construction between the latter and the earlier part of a sentence ; as : —

Nam nōs omnēs, quibus est alicunde aliquis obiectus labōs, omne quod est intereū tempus, priusquam id rescītum est, lucrō est, for [to] all of us upon whom some hardship is hurled from some quarter, the intervening time before we discover it is so much gain (Ter.).

The anacoluthon could be avoided by using either *nōs omnēs . . . lucrō habēmus*, or *nōbīs omnibus . . . lucrō est*.

+ (4.) **ANAPHORA** is the repetition of a word or of corresponding words, in the same order in successive clauses or sentences ; as : —

Nihilne tē nocturnum praesidium palātī, nihil urbis vigiliae, nihil timor populī . . . mōvērunt? have the guarding of

* A few have become so common as applied to English also that they need no special mention.

the Palatine by night, the patrol of the city, the fear of the people, produced no effect upon you? (Cic., *in Cat.*, i.) Cf. also 598, 1.

(5.) ANTITHESIS is the placing of different words or sentiments in contrast ; as : —

Caesar beneficiis ac munificentia magnus habebatur ; integritate vitae Catō, Caesar was thought great for his favors and generosity, Cato for the purity of his life (Sall., *Cat.*, 54, 2). Cf. also 598.

† (6.) APOCOPE is the omission of a letter or syllable at the end of a word ; as, *mēn'* for *mēne*. Cf. also 63, ii.

(7.) APOSTROPHE is the turning off from the course of the subject, to address some absent person or personified thing ; as : —

Quid nōn mortalia pectora cōgis, aurī sacra famēs? what dost thou not drive the heart of man to do, accursed hunger for gold? (Verg., *Ae.*, iii., 56).

† (8.) ASYNDETON is the omission of the connective between words or sentences ; as : —

Abiit, excēssit, evāsit, erūpit (Cic., *Cat.*, ii., 1, 1).

† (9.) BARBARISM is the use of a foreign word, or a violation of spelling or the rules of word-formation or metre in the use of a word ; as, *rigōrōsus* for *rigidus*.

< (10.) CHIASMUS is the placing of corresponding words in opposite orders in successive clauses or sentences. See the example under Antithesis above, and cf. also 598, 2.

— (11.) CRASIS is the contraction of two vowels into one ; as, *cōgō* for *co-agō* ; *nīl* for *nihil*.

(12.) ELLIPSIS is the omission of a word or words in a sentence ; as, *quid multa?* (sc. *dīcam*) ; *ad Dīānae* (sc. *aedem*).

(13.) EPANALEPSIS is a return to the subject by the repetition of a word or sentence after interrupting words or clauses. (See Verg., *Geōrg.*, ii., lines 4–7.)

(14.) HENDIADYS is the expression of an idea by two connected nouns instead of a noun modified by an adjective or a genitive ; as : —

Paterīs libāmus et aurō (for *paterīs aureīs*), we pour a libation from golden bowls (Verg., *Geōr.*, ii., 192).

(15.) HYPALLAGE is an interchange of constructions; as :—

In nova fert animus mūtātās dicere fōrmās corpora (for *corpora mūtāta in novās fōrmās*), my mind leads me to tell of bodies changed into new shapes (Ovid, *M.*, i., 1).

(16.) HYPERBATON is the displacement of a word from its connection in a clause or sentence; as :—

Ut ūlla intermīssiō fīat officiī (instead of *ut ūlla intermīssiō officiī fīat*) (Cic., *Am.*, 2, 8).

(17.) HYPERBOLE is the exaggeration or diminishing a thing beyond the truth; as :—

Ipsē arduus altaque pulsāt sīdera, towering he stands and strikes the stars on high (Verg., *Ae.*, iii., 619).

(18.) HYSTERON PROTERON is a reversal of the natural order of the sense; as :—

Moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus, let us die and rush into the midst of the battle (Verg., *Ae.*, ii., 353).

(19.) LITOTĒS is a mode of assertion by denying the contrary; as, *nōn laudō* = I blame; *nōn innoxia verba* = harmful words.

(20.) METATHESIS is the transposition of letters in a word; as, *cernō* beside *crētus*. Cf. also 72.

(21.) METONYMY is the substitution of the name of one thing for another to which it has a certain relation, as the cause for the effect, the sign for the thing signified, etc. Thus :—

Frūgēs Cererem appellāmus, vīnum autem Līberum, we call the crops Ceres and wine Bacchus (Cic., *N. D.*, ii., 23, 60); *cēdant arma togae*, let arms yield to the toga [*i. e.*, war to peace] (Cic., *Poet. frag.*).

(22.) OXYMŌRON is the union of words of contrary meanings in such a way as to produce a seeming contradiction; as :—

Concordia discors; cum tacent, clāmant.

(23.) PARONOMASIA is a play upon the similarity of sound between words; as :—

Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissimus (Plaut., *Cist.*, i., 1, 70); *cīvem bonārum artium, bonārum partium* (Cic.).

f (24.) PERIPHRAISIS is another name for circumlocution; as, *teneri fētūs ovium*, tender offspring of sheep (for *agnī*, lambs).

(25.) PLEONASM is the use of more words than are necessary to convey the meaning; as: —

Sic ore locūta est (Verg., *Ae.*, i., 614).

— (26.) PROLEPSIS is the anticipation of an idea before it appears; as: —

Fugūcēs terrēre equōs, to frighten the horses so as to make them flee (cf. Hor., *Od.*, ii., 1, 19).

(27.) PROSOPOPŒIA is another name for personification; as: —

Virtūs intāminātis fulget honoribus, true merit shines with unsullied honors (Hor., *Od.*, iii., 2, 17).

† (28.) SOLECISM is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, — *Venus pulcher* (for *pulchra*); *vōs* (for *vōbīs*) *invidēmus*.

† (29.) SYNCOPE is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, *asprīs* for *asperīs*. Cf. also 63, i.

† (30.) SYNECDOCHE is the use of the whole for a part, the genus for the species, the singular for the plural, the material for the thing made, or the opposites of these; as, *tēctum* for *domus*; *fontem* for *aquam*.

(31.) TAUTOLOGY is the repetition of an idea in different words; as: —

Iam vōs aciem et proelia et hostem pōscitis, now you demand the battle line, the fight, the foe (Sil.).

(32.) TMESIS is the separation of the parts of a word; as: —

Septem subiecta triōnī gēns, a people dwelling in the far north (Verg., *Geōr.*, iii., 381); *quæ mē cumque vocant terrae*, whatever lands call me (Verg., *Ae.*, i., 610).

(33.) ZEUGMA is the use of a word in two or more expressions, when it is strictly applicable to only one of them; as: —

Pācem an bellum gerēns, waging peace or war? (*gerere* not being a word which strictly applies to *pāx*); *semperne in sanguine, ferrō, fugā versābimur?*

MODES OF RECKONING.

TIME.

660. (1.) The Roman day was reckoned from sunrise to sunset, and this time was always divided into twelve hours (*hōrae*). The night, reckoned from sunset to sunrise, was also divided into twelve hours. Therefore the hours were not of a fixed length, as with us, but varied with the season of the year. At the equinoxes they had, like our hours, a uniform length of sixty minutes each. Between the vernal and the autumnal equinox the hours of daylight were more than sixty minutes long; between the autumnal and the vernal equinox, less than sixty minutes.

NOTE 1. In camp, the night was also divided into four watches (*vigiliae*) of three (Roman) hours each, the second ending at midnight and the fourth at sunrise.

(2.) In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names *Quīntilis* (July), *Sextilis* (August), *September*, etc., indicated the distance of these months from the beginning of the year. The number of days in the year was 355, divided between the months as follows: March, May, July, and October, 31 each; February, 28; and the others, 29 each. Every other year the Pontifices might put in an extra month after the 23d of February.

(3.) In 46 B. C. Julius Caesar reformed the calendar, putting it upon its present basis.* In leap-year, February 24th was counted twice. Hence the name *Bissextile* for leap-year (February 24th being the sixth day before the first of March). The names *Quīntilis* and *Sextilis* were afterwards changed to *Jūlius* and *Augustus*, in honor of Caesar and his grand-nephew.

(4.) The Romans counted their days *backwards* from three fixed points in each month: the Calends † (*Kalendae*), i. e.,

* Except for the slight change introduced by Pope Gregory XIII. in 1582 by which the closing year of a century (1700, 1800, 1900, etc.) is not counted as leap-year, unless its number is divisible by 400 (1600, 2000, etc.).

† So called because the priests then announced the new-moon. (Cf. *calāre*.)

the first of the month ; the Ides * (*Īdūs*), *i. e.*, the 13th of most months, but the 15th of March, May, July, and October ; and the Nones † (*Nōnae*), *i. e.*, the 5th, except in March, May, July and October, when it is the 7th. Therefore :

a. To reduce a Latin date to English terms : —

i. If reckoned from the Calends, add two to the number of days in the preceding month, and subtract the given date.

ii. Otherwise, add one to the day on which the Nones or Ides fall, and subtract the given date.

Thus : —

XV Kal. Quīnet. = $30 + 2 - 15 = 17$ th of June.

IV Nōn. Iān. = $5 + 1 - 4 = 2$ d of January.

VI Īdūs Māiās = $15 + 1 - 6 = 10$ th of May.

b. To reduce an English date to Latin terms : —

i. If later than the Ides of a given month, add two to the number of days in the month, and subtract the date.

ii. Otherwise, add one to the day on which the Ides or Nones fall in the given month, and subtract the date.

Thus : —

April 3d = $5 + 1 - 3 =$ III Nōn. April.

Dec. 10th = $13 + 1 - 10 =$ IV Īd. Dec.

Aug. 22d = $31 + 2 - 22 =$ XI Kal. Sept.

NOTE 1. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides is called *pridīe Kalendās*, *Nōnās*, or *Īdūs*. The Romans in reckoning counted both the starting-point and the day arrived at ; therefore they had no *diē secundō Kalendās*, etc., but the second day before the Calends was *diē tertiō Kal.*, and similarly with regard to the Nones and Ides.

NOTE 2. In leap-year the 24th of February was called *diēs bisextus*, as the year was called *annus bisextus*. Sometimes both the 24th and 25th were called *VI Kal. Mārt.*

NOTE 3. Before the year 46 B. C. the number of days in the months of the old year should, strictly, be taken in transferring dates, not the number of days in our months ; and that makes the problem much more complicated.

(5.) The Romans indicated the year officially by the names of its consuls. The Roman authors, however, sometimes reckoned years from the founding of Rome (753 B. C.).‡

* The time of full moon.

† By Roman reckoning, the ninth day before the Ides.

‡ Indicated thus : A. U. C. (*i. e.*, *annō urbis conditae*).

a. To reduce a year thus reckoned to English terms : —

i. If the number is less than 754, subtract it from 754, and the result gives the year B. C.

ii. If greater than 753, subtract 753 from it, and the result is the corresponding year of our era.

Thus : —

$$\text{A. U. C. } 684 = 754 - 684 = 70 \text{ B. C.}$$

$$\text{A. U. C. } 767 = 767 - 753 = \text{A. D. } 14.$$

b. To reduce a date B. C. or A. D. to the equivalent A. U. C.

i. If the year is B. C., subtract the number from 754.

ii. If the year is A. D., add the number to 753.

Thus : —

$$105 \text{ B. C.} = 754 - 105 = \text{A. U. C. } 649.$$

$$\text{A. D. } 115 = 753 + 115 = \text{A. U. C. } 868.$$

(6.) The Romans divided the year into festival days or holidays (*diēs fēstī*) and non-festival or working days (*diēs profēstī*). They also distinguished as *diēs fāstī* the days on which it was lawful to hold court, calling other days *diēs nefāstī*.*

NOTE 1. Besides various festivals celebrated upon special occasions, such as the *lūdī māgnī* (great games) and the *lūdī saeculārēs* (centennial games), the Romans had several stated festivals occurring at fixed times in the year. The most important are the following : —

Lupercālia, Feb. 15; *Quirinālia*, Feb. 17; *Quinquātrūs* (Festival of Minerva), March 19–23; *Lūdī Megalēnsēs* (*Megalēnsia*), April 4–10; *Parilia* or *Palilia*, April 21; *Lūdī Flōrālēs* (*Flōrālia*), April 28–May 3; *Lūdī Apollinārēs*, July 6–13; *Neptūnālia*, July 23; *Cōnsuālia*, Aug. 21 and Dec. 15; *Lūdī Rōmānī*, Sept. 4–19; *Lūdī Capitōlinī*, Oct. 15; *Lūdī Plēbēi*, Nov. 4–17; *Sāturnālia*, Dec. 17–23.

The anniversaries of the defeat at Lake Trasumennus (June 23) and the defeat by the Cimbri in 105 B. C. (Oct. 6) were known as *diēs ātri* (black days).

NOTE 2. In the late empire, when the division of the month into weeks was introduced at Rome, the days were named as follows : —

Sunday = *diēs Sōlis*; Monday = *diēs Lūnae*; Tuesday = *diēs Mārtis*; Wednesday = *diēs Mercuriī*; Thursday = *diēs Iovis*; Friday = *diēs Veneris*; Saturday = *diēs Sātūrnī*. Sunday is also called *diēs dominica* (i. e., the Lord's day).

* For a complete calendar of special days, see Preller's *Römische Mythologie*, pp. 797 ff.

THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

661. The following table shows the correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans.

<i>Days of our months.</i>	MAR. JUL. MAY. OCT.	JAN. DEC. AUG.	APR. SEPT. JUN. NOV.	FEB.
1	Kalendæ.	Kalendæ.	Kalendæ.	Kalendæ.
2	VI Nōnās.	IV Nōnās.	IV Nōnās.	IV Nōnās.
3	V "	III "	III "	III "
4	IV "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "
5	III "	Nōnæ.	Nōnæ.	Nōnæ.
6	Prīdiē "	VIII Idūs.	VIII Idūs.	VIII Idūs.
7	Nōnæ.	VII "	VII "	VII "
8	VIII Idūs.	VI "	VI "	VI "
9	VII "	V "	V "	V "
10	VI "	IV "	IV "	IV "
11	V "	III "	III "	III "
12	IV "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "
13	III "	Idūs.	Idūs.	Idūs.
14	Prīdiē "	XIX Kal.*	XVIII Kal.*	XVI Kal.*
15	Idūs.	XVIII "	XVII "	XV "
16	XVII Kal.*	XVII "	XVI "	XIV "
17	XVI "	XVI "	XV "	XIII "
18	XV "	XV "	XIV "	XII "
19	XIV "	XIV "	XIII "	XI "
20	XIII "	XIII "	XII "	X "
21	XII "	XII "	XI "	IX "
22	XI "	XI "	X "	VIII "
23	X "	X "	IX "	VII "
24	IX "	IX "	VIII "	VI "
25	VIII "	VIII "	VII "	V "
26	VII "	VII "	VI "	IV "
27	VI "	VI "	V "	III "
28	V "	V "	IV "	Prīdiē "
29	IV "	IV "	III "	
30	III "	III "	Prīdiē "	
31	Prīdiē "	Prīdiē "		

NOTE. In leap-year the last seven days of February were reckoned thus:—

23. VII Kalendās Mārtiās.	27. IV Kal. Mārt.
24. Bisextō " "	28. III " "
25. VI " "	29. Prīdiē " "
26. V " "	

Cf. also 660, 4, Note 2.

* I. e., of course, the Calends of the following month.

MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

662. (1.) The Roman system of reckoning was a duodecimal one, in which the smaller unit ($\frac{1}{12}$) was called *ūncia*, the larger unit, *as*. Thus : —

12 ūnciae	=	$\frac{1}{12}$	or 1 as
11 “ or deūnx	=	$\frac{1}{12}$	“
10 “ “ dēxtāns	=	$\frac{1}{12}$	“ $\frac{5}{6}$ “
9 “ “ dōdrāns	=	$\frac{9}{12}$	“ $\frac{3}{4}$ “
8 “ “ bēs	=	$\frac{8}{12}$	“ $\frac{2}{3}$ “
7 “ “ septūnx	=	$\frac{7}{12}$	“
6 “ “ sēmis	=	$\frac{6}{12}$	“ $\frac{1}{2}$ “
5 “ “ quīncūnx	=	$\frac{5}{12}$	“
4 “ “ triēns	=	$\frac{4}{12}$	“ $\frac{1}{3}$ “
3 “ “ quadrāns	=	$\frac{3}{12}$	“ $\frac{1}{4}$ “
2 “ “ sextāns	=	$\frac{2}{12}$	“ $\frac{1}{6}$ “
$1\frac{1}{2}$ “ “ sēscūncia	=	$\frac{3}{24}$	“ $\frac{1}{8}$ “
1 ūncia	=	$\frac{1}{12}$	“

NOTE. The *ūncia* was subdivided as follows : —

Sēmūncia	=	$\frac{1}{2}$ ūncia	or $\frac{1}{24}$ as
Bīnae sextulae	=	$\frac{1}{3}$ “	“ $\frac{1}{36}$ “
Sicilicus	=	$\frac{1}{4}$ “	“ $\frac{1}{48}$ “
Sextula	=	$\frac{1}{6}$ “	“ $\frac{1}{72}$ “
Dimidia sextula	=	$\frac{1}{12}$ “	“ $\frac{1}{144}$ “
Scrīpulum	=	$\frac{1}{24}$ “	“ $\frac{1}{288}$ “
[Dimidium scrīpulum]	=	$\frac{1}{48}$ “	“ $\frac{1}{576}$ “

(2.) The *as* was thus the real unit of measurement, and the special units in different kinds of measures and weights were treated as *assēs*, and subdivided into twelfths.

663.

MONEY.

1 as	=	<i>originally about a pound of copper.</i>	
$2\frac{1}{2}$ assēs	=	1 sēstertius or nummus	= <i>about 5 cts.</i>
2 sēstertiī	=	1 quīnārius	= “ 10 cts.
2 quīnāriī	=	1 dēnārius	= “ 20 cts.
25 dēnāriī	=	1 (nummus) aureus	= “ \$5.
1000 sēstertiī	=	1 sēstertiūm	= “ \$50.

NOTE 1. Originally all the Roman coins were copper: namely, the *as* and its fractions. The *sēstertius*, *quīnārius*, and *dēnārius* were introduced later, and were silver; the *dēnārius* was at first equal to ten *assēs*, but afterwards the *as* was depreciated, and the *dēnārius* was equal to sixteen *assēs*. The *aureus* was of gold, and was first struck during the second Punic war.

NOTE 2. For sums from 2,000 to 1,000,000 sesterces, *mille, milia*, with *sēstertiūm* (genitive plural), were used, or *sēstertiūm* as a neuter noun. Thus:—

Quadrāgintā milia sēstertiūm or *quadrāgintā sēstertia* = 40,000 sesterces.

NOTE 3. For sums from 1,000,000 sesterces upwards, the combination *decīēs* (*viciēs*, etc.) *centēna milia sēstertiūm* was used, and the words *centēna milia* were generally omitted. Thus:—

Decīēs sēstertiūm = 1,000,000 sesterces; *centīēs sēstertiūm* = 10,000,000 sesterces.

Sometimes the numeral adverb was used alone. Thus:—

Decīēs = 1,000,000 sesterces.

NOTE 4. Sesterces were indicated by the sign HS. A line over this indicated *thousands*, lines on the sides also *hundreds of thousands*. Thus:—

HS. DCC = 700 *sēstertii*; $\overline{\text{HS. D}}$ = 500,000 *sēstertii*, or 500 *sēstertia*; $|\overline{\text{HS.}}|$ DCCC = 80,000,000 *sēstertii*.

664.

WEIGHTS.

4 scrīpula	=	1 sextula.
2 sextulae	=	1 sicīlicus.
4 sicīlicī	=	1 ūncia.
12 ūnciae	=	1 libra (as or pound).

NOTE 1. The following Greek coins and weights were also used:—

6 oboli	=	1 drachma (coin or weight).
100 drachmae	=	1 mina.
60 minae	=	1 talentum (<i>Attic</i>).

NOTE 2. In imperial times a *siliqua* (= $\frac{1}{2}$ *obolus*) was also used.

665.

MEASURES.

(1.)

MEASURES OF LENGTH.

4 digitī	=	1 palmus minor.
3 palmī minōrēs	=	1 palmus (māior).
4 palmī	=	1 pēs (as) (11.65 <i>Eng. inches</i>).
$1\frac{1}{2}$ pedēs	=	1 cubitus.
$2\frac{1}{2}$ pedēs	=	1 gradus.
2 gradūs	=	1 passus.
125 passūs	=	1 stadium.
8 stadia	=	1 mille (passuum) (<i>Roman mile</i>).

NOTE 1. The unit of square measure is the *iūgerum* (*as*). The other square measures scarcely require treatment in a grammar at all.

NOTE 2. These measures also were divided into the regular fractions of the *as* as the equivalent of the *pēs* or *iūgerum*.

(2.)

DRY MEASURE.

1½	cyathī	= 1 acētābulum.
4	acētābula	= 1 hēmīna.
2	hēmīnae	= 1 sextārius.
16	sextāriī	= 1 modius (<i>peck</i>).

(3.)

LIQUID MEASURE.

1½	cyathī	= 1 acētābulum.
2	acētābula	= 1 quārtārius.
2	quārtāriī	= 1 hēmīna.
2	hēmīnae	= 1 sextārius.
6	sextāriī	= 1 congius.
4	congiī	= 1 ūrna.
2	ūrnae	= 1 amphora.
20	amphorae	= 1 culleus.

ROMAN NAMES.

666. A free Roman had usually three names. Thus:—

(1.) The **PRAENŌMEN**, distinguishing the individual.

(2.) “ **NŌMEN** “ “ *gēns*.

(3.) “ **CŌGNŌMEN** “ “ *familia*.

a. **PRAENOMINA** all end in *-us*, except *Kaesō*. **NŌMINA** all end in *-ius*, and are really adjectives (cf. 268). **CŌGNŌMINA** have various endings, and are derived generally from some personal peculiarity of their original bearer (cf. our nicknames). Thus:—

Decimus Jūnius Brūtus.*

Pūblius Cornēlius Scipiō.*

Quīntus Mūcius Scaevola.*

Sometimes only two names are found; as, Gāius Laelius.

* From *brūtus*, heavy, *scipiō*, a staff, *scaevus*, the left (hand or side).

b. Further cōgnōmina are often used ; thus, especially, cōgnōmina in -iānus indicate adoption FROM a certain gēns ; -ānus (when not added to gentile names) and -icus indicate military or other distinction. Thus : —

Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Aemiliānus, Āfricānus Minor.*

NOTE. The adoptive name is in familiar language often reduced to the gentile form. Thus, Cicero calls Atticus *Pompōnius* rather than *Pompōniānus*. In later Latin only, a second cōgnōmen was called an *āgnōmen*.

c. Daughters were usually called simply by their father's gentile name ; as, *Tullia* (Cicero's daughter). If two sisters were to be distinguished, *māior* and *minor* were added. A third or fourth daughter was known as *tertia* or *quārta*, and so on.

d. The Roman praenōmina were abbreviated thus : —

A.	= Aulus.	L.	= Lūcius.	Q.	= Quīntus.
App.	= Appius.	M.	= Mārcus.	Ser.	= Servius.
C.	= Gāius.	M'	= Mānīlius.	Sex.	= Sextus. <i>Manius</i>
Cn.	= Gnaeus.	Mam.	= Māmercus.	Sp.	= Spurius.
D.	= Decimus.	N.	= Numerius.	T.	= Titus.
K.	= Kaesō.	P.	= Pūblius.	Ti. or Tib.	= Tiberius.

667.

ABBREVIATIONS.

A.	= absolvō, antīquō.	Eq. Rom.	= eques Rōmānus.
a. d.	= ante diem.	F. or f.	= filius.
A. U. C.	= annō urbis condi- tae.	Ictus.	= iūris cōnsultus.
C.	= condemnō.	Īd.	= Īdūs.
cos.	= cōnsul.	imp.	= imperātor.
coss.	= cōnsulēs.	I. O. M.	= Iovī optumō māk- umō.
D.	= divus.	K. or Kal. (or Cal.)	= Kalen- dae.
d. d.	= dōnō dedit.	N. or n.	= nepōs.
d. d. d.	= dat, dicat, dēdicat.	Nōn.	= Nōnae.
des.	= dēsīgnātus.	P. C.	= patrēs cōnscrip̄tī.
D. M.	= dī mātēs.		

* The younger Africanus was adopted by P. Cornelius Scipio (the son of Africanus Major) from the Aemilian gēns.

pl. = plēbis.	S. D. = salūtem dicit.
pont. māk. = pontifex mākī-	S. D. P. = salūtem dicit plūri-
mus.	mam.
pop. = populus.	S. P. Q. R. = Senātus popu-
P. R. = populus Rōmānus.	lusque Rōmānus.
pr. = praetor.	S. T. E. Q. V. B. E. = sī tibi
proc. = prēcōsul.	est quod vīs bene est.
Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quod bonum	S. V. B. E. E. V. = sī valēs
fēlix faustumque sit.	bene est, egō valeō.
Quir. = Quirītēs.	Sc. = senātūs cōsultum.
resp. = rēs pūblica.	tr. = tribūnus.
S. = salūtem, sacrum, Senātus.	U. (u. r.) = utī rogās.

668. PRINCIPAL LATIN WRITERS.

NOTE 1. The writers from the time of Lucretius to the time of Suetonius are called the **CLASSICAL** writers. In a more restricted sense this term is limited to the period beginning with Cicero and Caesar and ending with Tacitus. The Classical period is sometimes divided into the **GOLDEN** Age and the **SILVER** Age, the historian Livy counting as the first prose writer of the latter and the Augustan poets being reckoned in the former. Among the writers later than Suetonius a **BRAZEN** Age, followed by an **IRON** Age, is sometimes further distinguished. The writers before and after the Classical period are, however, now generally classed simply as *Ante-classical* and *Post-classical* writers, respectively.

NOTE 2. The following alphabetical list of the chief Latin writers is subjoined as a convenient reference-list for the pupil.

<i>Acc. or Att.</i>	L. Accius <i>or</i> Attius (trag.)	170-94 B. C.
<i>Amm.</i>	Ammiānus Mārcellīnus (hist.)	died A. D. 400.
<i>App.</i>	L. Appulēius (philos.)	flour. A. D. 160.
<i>Aug.</i>	Aurēlius Augustīnus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 430.
<i>Aur. Vict.</i>	Sextus Aurēlius Victor (hist.)	flour. A. D. 360.
<i>Aus.</i>	D. Māgnus Ausonius (poet)	died A. D. 390.
<i>Boëth.</i>	Anicius Mānlius Torquātus Sevērīnus Boëtius <i>or</i> Boëthius (philos.)	died A. D. 525.
<i>Caecil.</i>	Stātius Caecilius (comed.)	flour. 180 B. C.

<i>Caes.</i>	Gāius Iūlius Caesar (hist.)	100-44 B. C.
<i>Cassiod.</i>	Māgnus Aurēlius Cassiodō- rus (hist.)	died A. D. 575.
<i>Cato</i>	M. Porcius Catō (orat. and hist.)	234-149 B. C.
<i>Cat.</i> or } <i>Catull.</i> }	C. Valerius Catullus (poet)	87-54 B. C.
<i>Cels.</i>	Aurēlius Cornēlius Celsus (physic.)	flour. A. D. 50.
<i>Censor.</i>	Cēnsōrīnus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 238.
<i>Charis.</i>	Flāvius Sōsipater Charisius (gram.)	flour. A. D. 375.
<i>Cic.</i> or <i>C.</i>	M. Tullius Cicerō (orat. and philos.)	106-43 B. C.
<i>Claud.</i>	Claudius Claudīanus (poet)	flour. A. D. 400.
<i>Col.</i>	L. Iūnius Moderātus Colu- mella (husbandry)	flour. A. D. 50.
<i>Cornif.</i>	Q. Cornificius (rhet. "ad Herennium")	flour. 80 B. C.?
<i>Curt.</i>	Q. Curtius Rūfus (hist.)	flour. A. D. 50.
<i>Donat.</i> or } <i>Don.</i> }	Allius Dōnātus (comment.)	flour. A. D. 350.
<i>Enn.</i>	Q. Ennius (poet)	239-169 B. C.
<i>Fest.</i>	Sex. Pompēius Fēstus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 150?
<i>Flor.</i>	L. Annaeus Flōrus (hist.)	flour. A. D. 140.
<i>Front.</i> or } <i>Frontin.</i> }	S. Iūlius Frontīnus (engin., etc.)	A. D. 40-103.
<i>Fronto</i> or } <i>Front.</i> }	M. Cornēlius Frontō (orat.)	A. D. 100-175.
<i>Gai.</i>	Gāius (Iūris cōsultus)	A. D. 110-180.
<i>Gell.</i>	Aulus Gellius (gram., etc.)	A. D. 130-175.
<i>Hier.</i>	Hierōnymus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 420.
<i>Hirt.</i>	Aulus Hirtius (hist., "8th book of Caes.," etc.)	died 44 B. C.
<i>Hor.</i>	Q. Horātius Flaccus (poet)	65-8 B. C.
<i>Iust.</i>	Iūstīniānus (emperor, "Code")	died A. D. 565.

<i>Iuv.</i>	D. Iūnius Iuvenālis (satir. poet)	A. D. 60-140.
<i>Lact.</i>	L. Caelius Lactantius Fīrmiānus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 325.
<i>Liv.</i>	Titus Līvius (hist.)	59 B. C. - A. D. 17.
<i>Liv. Andron.</i>	Līvius Andronīcus (trag.)	284-204 B. C.
<i>Luc.</i>	M. Annaeus Lūcānus (poet)	A. D. 39-65.
<i>Lucil.</i>	C. Ennius Lūcilius (satir. poet)	died 103 B. C.
<i>Lucr.</i>	T. Lucrētius Cārus (poet, philos.)	98-55 B. C.
<i>Macr.</i>	Aurēlius Theodosius Macrobius (critic)	flour. A. D. 400.
<i>Mart.</i>	M. Valerius Mārtiālis (poet)	A. D. 40-102.
<i>Mart. Cap.</i>	Mārtiānus Minneus Fēlix Capella (satir.)	flour. A. D. 425?
<i>Mel. or Mela</i>	Pompōnius Mela (geog.)	flour. A. D. 45.
<i>Min. Fel.</i>	Minucius Fēlix (Chr. writ.)	flour. A. D. 200.
<i>Naev.</i>	C. Naevius (dram. and epic poet)	235-199 B. C.
<i>Nep.</i>	Cornēlius Nepōs (biog.)	flour. 44 B. C.
<i>Non.</i>	Nōnius Mārcellus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 280?
<i>Ov.</i>	P. Ovidius Nāsō (poet)	43 B. C. - A. D. 17.
<i>Pac. or Pacuv. }</i>	M. Pācuvius (trag.)	220-132 B. C.
<i>Pers.</i>	A. Persius Flaccus (satir.)	A. D. 34-62.
<i>Petr.</i>	Petrōnius Arbiter (satir. romanc.)	flour. A. D. 60?
<i>Phaedr.</i>	T. Phaedrus (fab.)	flour. A. D. 40.
<i>Plaut.</i>	T. Maccius Plautus (comed.)	254-184 B. C.
<i>Plin.</i>	C. Plīnius Secundus [Māior] (nat. hist.)	A. D. 23-79.
<i>Plin.</i>	C. Plīnius Caecilius Secundus [Minor] (letters)	A. D. 62-113.
<i>Prisc.</i>	Prīsciānus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 500.
<i>Prop.</i>	Sextus Propertius (poet)	49-15 B. C.

<i>Prud.</i>	Aurēlius Prūdentius Clēmēns (Chr. writ.)	flour. A. D. 400.
<i>Quint.</i>	M. Fabius Quīntiliānus (rhet.)	A. D. 35-95.
<i>Sall.</i>	C. Sallustius Crīspus (hist.)	87-34 B. C.
<i>Sen.</i>	[M.] Annaeus Seneca (rhet.)	54 B. C. - A. D. 39.
<i>Sen.</i>	L. Annaeus Seneca (phil. and trag.)	4 B. C. - A. D. 65.
<i>Serv.</i>	Servius Honōrātus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 390.
<i>Sid.</i>	Apollināris Sīdonius (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 488.
<i>Sil.</i>	C. Silius Ītalicus (poet)	A. D. 25-101.
<i>Stat.</i>	P. Pāpinus Stātius (poet)	A. D. 45-96.
<i>Suet.</i>	C. Suētōnius Tranquillus (biog.)	A. D. 75-160.
<i>Tac.</i>	C. Cornēlius Tacitus (hist.)	A. D. 55-119.
<i>Ter. or T.</i>	P. Terentius Āfer (comed.)	185-159 B. C.
<i>Ter. Maur.</i>	Terentiānus Maurus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 290.
<i>Tert.</i>	Q. Septimius Flōrēns Tertul- liānus (Chr. writ.)	died A. D. 220.
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<i>Ulp.</i>	Domitius Ulpīānus (jur.)	died A. D. 228.
<i>Val. Fl.</i>	C. Valerius Flaccus (poet)	flour. A. D. 70.
<i>Val. Max.</i>	Valerius Māximus (hist. anec.)	flour. A. D. 26.
<i>Val. Prob.</i>	M. Valerius Probus (gram.)	flour. A. D. 60 ?
<i>Varr.</i>	M. Terentius Varrō (hus- bandry, gram., etc.)	116-27 B. C.
<i>Vell.</i>	P. Vellēius Paterculus (hist.)	flour. A. D. 30 ?
<i>Ver. Flac.</i>	Verrius Flaccus (gram.)	died 4 B. C. ?
<i>Verg.</i>	P. Vergilius Marō (poet)	70-19 B. C.
<i>Vitr.</i>	Vitrūvius Pōlliō (arch.)	flour. 10 B. C.

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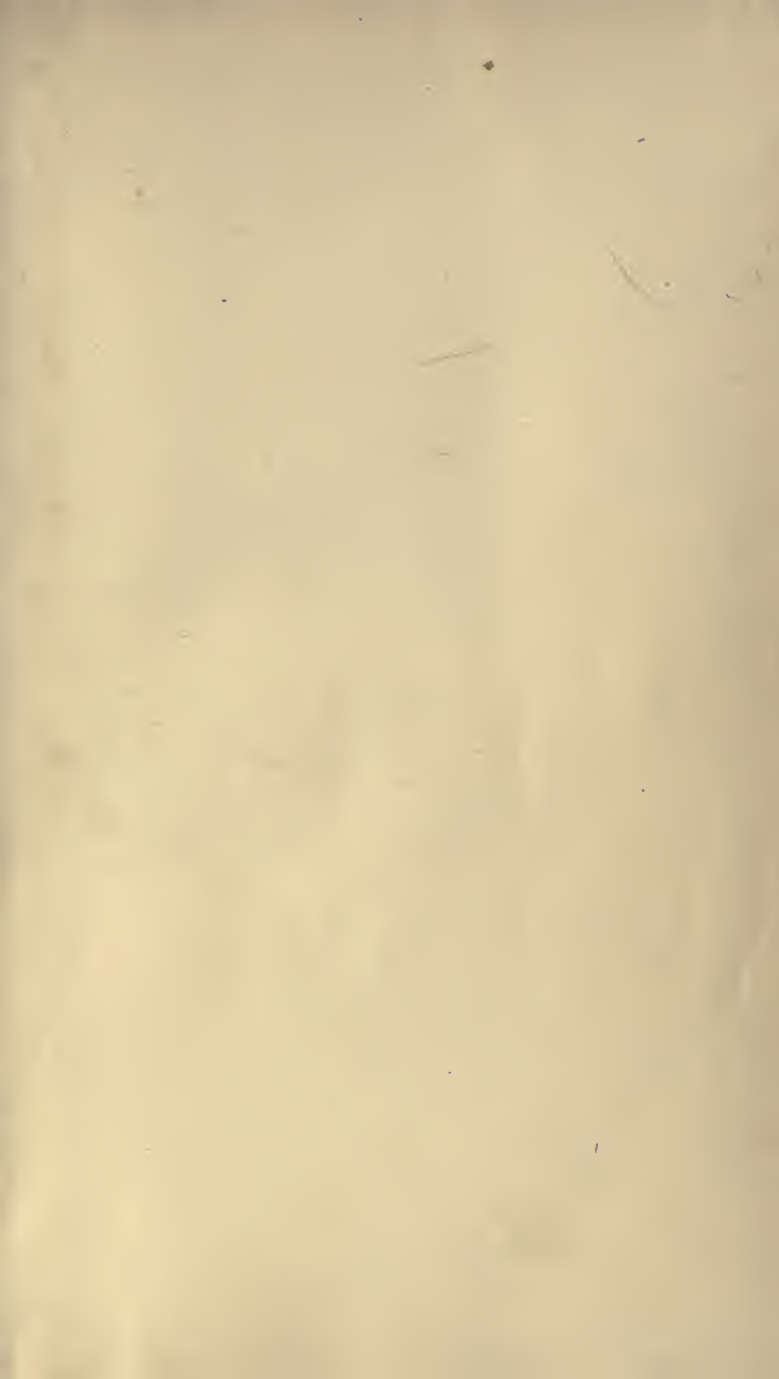
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